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ABSTRACT

This issue begins with an editorial comment on the journal's areas of interest. The articles are concerned with the following topics: (1) English composition and the use of the computer (Peter Zoller); (2) the teacher and the language laboratory (L. Ross and B. D. Sadler); (3) language aptitude tests in the language laboratory (in German, Peter Nubold); (4) cooperative learning in the language laboratory (Udo Jung); (5) a group-work French teaching project (J. Hare); (6) language aptitude tests for the Japanese (Ken Murakami); (7) group work in the language classroom in Finland (Kalevi Vainioranta and David Bullivant); (8) standardized tests in German as a foreign language (in German, Alfred Tumat); (9) bilingualism in Wales (Jac L. Williams); (10) the linguistic, personal, and social development of immigrant children in Sweden (B. I. Stockfelt-Hoatson). Comments from the readers, a calendar of international conferences, and an index to Volume 2, 1974, are included. (LG)

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SYSTEM

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FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY
AND LANGUAGE LEARNING SYSTEMS

S Y S T E M

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Contents

Editorial:	Out of Bounds?	1
PETER ZOLLER:	Composition and the Computer	3
L. ROSS and B. D. SADLER:	The Teacher and the Machine	7
PETER NÜBOLD:	Sprechfertigkeitstest: Lernzielgerechte Leistungskontrolle im Sprachlabor und ihre technologischen Probleme	10
UDO JUNG:	Co-operative Learning in the Language Laboratory	21
J. HARE:	Notes on a Group Work French Teaching Project	27
KEN MURAKAMI:	A Language Aptitude Test for the Japanese (GTT)	31
K. VAINIORANTA and D. BULLIVANT:	Group Working in the Language Classroom	48
ALFRED J. TUMAT:	Deutsch als Fremdsprache: objektivierte und standardisierte Prüfungen im Rahmen einer Grundstufe	57
JAC L. WILLIAMS:	Bilingualism in Wales	60
B.-I. STOCKFELT-HOATSON:	Linguistic, Personal and Social Development of Immigrant Children	67
COMMENTS FROM OUR READERS		78
CALENDAR		86
BOOKS AND PERIODICALS RECEIVED		87
INDEX TO VOLUME TWO, 1974		88

OUT OF BOUNDS?

Our recent inquiry in connection with the address lists circulated with the May number has produced much of interest, including some hundred potential reviewers and well over a hundred suggestions for new readers. The petition has been signed by over 250 people so far, not all for the same reasons as Mr Waring (see letters), and we hope to have news of its effect shortly. The questionnaire has also produced some very flattering comments, a few suggestions for future areas of inquiry (where we hope for reactions from our readers), and the germs of a debate on the proper field of interest for System. Were we out of bounds with the special section on bilingual education? What are the proper limits to our field?

Several of our correspondents have urged us not to get bogged down in gadgetry, nor do I think that Drs. Stansfield and Seliger, who in particular raise the above problem, wish us to do so. Their concern is very proper, and raises an important question of principle. In the first issue I wrote an editorial entitled "Educational Technology and the Language Teacher" in which I tentatively sought to mark out our territory. I quoted a definition of educational technology which I should like to repeat:

> Educational technology is a field involved in the facilitation of human learning through the systematic identification, development, organization, and utilization of a full range of learning resources, the delivery of resources to learners, and the management of these processes and the people who perform them.[1]

I went on to say: "Educational technology is not merely concerned with machines though new (and old) media and their use are a central preoccupation ... The approach is scientific and systematic, that is, goals or objectives are carefully specified, strategies are selected or developed, resources are brought to bear, and the experiment is evaluated, leading to revision and improvement". (Compare the comments by Mr. Jameson in the letters section.) It is the systems approach embodied in this thinking that led us to use the term "language learning systems" in our caption, that, indeed, gave us our name.

We are not a journal devoted to educational technology, linguistics, or even applied linguistics, in general. We are concerned solely with the learning process, with the identification of specific problems, and the development and testing of solutions to those problems. Our approach is

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[1] "The Field of Educational Technology: A Statement of Definition". Audiovisual Instruction, Oct 1972, 36

essentially a practical one, we aim to be useful. We are, of course, especially interested in technical aids and their proper place in the learning process, and in fact, if we ignore the section on bilingual education, of the 31 other articles so far published, 28 have technology or programmed learning as the central concern, in the other three it is an essential ingredient.

We would be interested to have more opinions on this matter. Is bilingual education, for instance, a fitting problem area for us to deal with? It not, may we stray over the fence occasionally? We have already planned another special issue for next May, on the teaching of languages for special purposes, a rapidly expanding field of activity which poses definite methodological problems, not all of which can be solved with the aid of technology. The systems approach is, however, very relevant.

It is therefore important to us to hear the views of our readers, for there is no doubt that we wish to preserve our individuality. We believe that we fill a definite gap in the periodical literature at present available; we shall endeavour to maintain a clear profile.

Norman F. Davies

CALL FOR PAPERS

Languages for Special Purposes

Special issue May 1975

We invite contributions dealing with the special problems and methods used to teach languages to scientists, economists, besinessmen etc; with the training of specific language skills, such as reading comprehension, for specific purposes; with the role of technical aids in such courses; and other relevant considerations.

Peter Zoller

Composition and the Computer[x]

The need for experimentation with the computer was stimulated by very precise demands in the composition program at the University of California at Riverside. The Riverside campus of the University of California is located sixty miles East by South East from Los Angeles. The total enrollment of the campus is 4800 students of whom 1800 are graduate students. Of the 3000+ students at the undergraduate level roughly one quarter to one third of the entering students are considered to need remedial work in composition. The University of California has as a general policy rather strict entrance requirements. One of those requirements is the taking of the College Entrance Examination. If a student scores below 550 on the verbal part, he must register for Subject A--Remedial English. Because the material covered in Subject A has been considered remedial in nature (i.e. something the student should have learned in high school, but did not), no unit credit has been given for the course and the student has been charged a fee of $45. Further, the course displaces four units in the student's program, and with the advent of tuition, the real cost of Subject A is in excess of the $45 fee charged.

Typically the students in Subject A are very diverse: while 90+ of all minority students admitted to U.C.R. must take Subject A, minority students make up only 40% of the total enrollment in the course. Because of the entrance requirements at the University of California, most of the students in Subject A have performed very well in high school (B average or better) and many have averaged much higher in English courses. But, for whatever reason, these students find themselves in a remedial course which costs money over and above the tuition. As might be imagined, morale in Subject A is very low--for both students and teachers.

After careful evaluation, extending for a period of some six months, the committee of the Academic Senate charged with overseeing the program, the Subject A Committee, recommended a series of changes: unit credit, elimination of the fee, change of name for the course, and innovation in the methods of teaching the course

One area the committee investigated was Computer Aided Instruction. Our decision was not prompted by the exotic

[x]I wish to thank both the University of California, Riverside, and Wichita State University for funding

nature of the machinery nor by the feeling that it might be possible to get grant money for development, but by our feeling that an interactive system coupled with a tutorial project might be the best way to teach English composition--or at least a method that should be explored. Very fortunately Ms. Anna Marie Thames of Golden West College in Huntington Beach, California, agreed to come to the U.C.R. campus and to demonstrate the programs she had developed. After some five years in research and development her programs in remedial composition appeared to be highly sophisticated and exactly what we were looking for. After some negotiation she agreed to give us her programs to use in our experiment. Two advantages accrued from such an arrangement. First, we could never hope to match the skill of her programs without spending an equal amount of time, and secondly, her programs were designed for the most remedial of students at a Junior College that had no entrance requirements whatever.

Ms. Thame's system consisted of 15 programs of which we used 12. The programs were written in APL and designed for use on the IBM 360-50 with remote terminals. Golden West College had been committed to CAI for some time and between Ms. Thames and her programmers we were able to set up and experiment with ACI--Composition in a very short amount of time.

Because our budget extends from July 1 to June 30, the "short amount of time" was very short indeed. Our decision to experiment was taken at the beginning of the Winter Quarter (c. 3 Jan 1972) and we wished to go into operation during the Spring Quarter (c. 1 April 1972). What with technical matters to solve: finding a room, installing terminals, shuffling papers, our sample was not as accurately chosen nor as large as it should have been. I recruited some 15 students to take the Subject A program. Their ages ranged from 18 to 35 and their years in school from 3rd quarter freshman to 4th quarter senior. Three of the fifteen students were classified as minority. They were especially chosen by me because I wanted to discover as well as I could, whether language programs developed at a school which has few if any minority students would be difficult for minority students to understand. As I will explain later such negative interference did not occur.

As an inducement to the students to try to program, I offered them the assurance that they would satisfy the Subject A requirement if they finished the twelve programs. Further, I assured them that the course would be free--grants defrayed the cost of the program. In general, the organization of the course was the following: three remote terminals were placed in a room in the library. The room was open from 1 p.m. to 5 p.m. (the hours APL was "up"

at U.C.R.). A student programmer was hired at $2.75/hr. to be on duty at all times that the room was open. The programmer's function was two-fold: he was to assist the student in the event of difficulties due to technical problems whether program or student-generated; and secondly, he was to act as a monitor. The students signed up to work with the programs as they wished. The course was designed so that a student had to complete one program per week and each program tended to take an hour to work. A student could work at a faster rate if she/he chose. Once a week the students met with the instructor in the course for a 2 hour writing workshop during which the instructor helped the students with papers he assigned or papers they were working on in other courses. These writing assignments were not graded because we wanted primarily to see how the students were reacting to ACI.

At the conclusion of the quarter, we evaluated the experiment, and the results were quite encouraging. With so many variables it was impossible to register accurately the effects of CAI upon student writing. Consequently, we confined our enquiries to whether the students liked the approach and whether they thought it was helpful. All agreed that they liked the approach and that they found it helpful. Universally they liked the fact that they were doing something rather than listening to how to do something.

Various difficulties were experienced with the program, the major one being the inability to assess accurately the effect of CAI upon the students' writing. The size of the group was too small to be valid. Further, because of the short amount of time to set up the experiment, we could not set up a norm group. Further, no pre- and post-test was established that would indicate student improvement. We remained undaunted, however, because we did discover that such a system could work and that students liked it. The effects of CAI did not seem difficult to assess in the future, and experiments could be constructed that might indicate such effects. Further, results might even indicate whether the system was "cost-effective".

Typical costs we encountered were: Programmer $2.75/hr; "Q" time $5.00/hr; terminal rental $80/mo. each. Certainly the experiment was costly, but no more so than what is commonly experienced in the physical sciences and considerably less by most standards.

In the evaluation of the program the students all requested that we develop punctuation programs. With favorable action on our grant request we began work on three programs in punctuation: the use of the colon, semicolon,

and the comma. Two of our programs (colon and semi-colon) are finished and the comma is still in a mixed stage of development. The rules for these are very traditional because I wished to give a basic approach from which the student could deviate later. The sentences were developed by a friend from Pasadena. The programs and the speed with which we worked are entirely attributable to my programmer, Mr. Lee Bernier, a graduate student in statistics.

The term "composition program" may be a misnomer, for CAI-composition is not designed to teach anyone to write a composition, a task I have found too difficult at this stage to program. Rather, CAI-composition is designed as a "fun" yet educationally sound way in which the student can practice grammar and syntax. To draw a somewhat far-fetched analogy, yet one I think will hold, writing a composition is similar to a basketball game: many parts go into making up the complete game. But individual parts can be practiced. Analagously, many parts go into writing a composition. Many of the parts can be practiced and CAI supplies the practice. In short, CAI can permit the student to learn on his own what he is capable of learning, and it frees the teacher to emphasize other aspects that only the teacher can supply.

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The Teacher and the Machine

It seems to us that the title of this essay gives a clue why its subject matter has required the collaboration of a teacher and a technician. Over ten years have now passed since the Language Laboratory was first introduced for general use into this country and during this time a wide variety of models have been provided by the manufacturers.

Both authors are fortunate in having worked in close association for the whole of the above mentioned period, which has meant that all the problems, queries and ideas arising out of use and adaptations of the equipment have been approached from both a teaching and a technical angle.

Right from the beginning, we have been concerned with the extreme complexity of the teachers' control desks. This complexity, we feel, is due to the Language Laboratory then being in its infancy. At the state of knowledge at that time, it was difficult to foresee the precise usefulness of the facilities provided, their sequence of operation, and consequently the most economic layout of controls. In this article we outline a number of design-features aimed at flexibility and simplicity of operation which we intend to incorporate into one of our language laboratories. This greater flexibility and simplicity is particularly desirable to ensure that the change-over from one working mode to another can be achieved with ease and minimum effort, allowing the teacher to concentrate on instruction and supervision. The importance of this is obvious, considering that the teacher is usually unaccustomed to handling machinery.

The modifications that we envisage are as follows:

(a) Removal of the seldom-used programme-sources (e.g. radio, record player, extra tape recorder) onto an external portable trolley, which need only be used when desired.

(b) The control-desk recorder to be designed for use as a playback machine only. This necessitates the removal of the record facility usually provided, thus eliminating the danger of erasing a valuable teaching tape. Furthermore, the record button and its associated safety device are unnecessary.

(c) Removal of all Group Switches which excessively complicate the Control Desk. The main functions of these switches are now transferred to the switching-system discussed in item (d).

(d) That all the main function switching (transfer from desk, student control, intercommunication, etc.) be achieved by a panel of heavy-duty interlocking buttons, which allow the immediate change-over from any one function to any other. These push-buttons are the nucleus of our design, around which our other simplifications have been made.

(e) The alteration of the Individual Booth Switches to enable the instructor to immobilise the booths which are not required for use during a particular period. To achieve this immobilisation the switches are physically depressed on the ball-pen principle thus also giving a visual indication of which booths are unused.

There is, however, one main function which needs explanation. It provides the means of an immediate change-over from a manual working mode to live communication, which breaks the artificiality and monotony.[x] When we requested this facility on our previous installation the manufacturers provided an add-on unit, which allowed us to establish general intercommunication with the whole class. Unfortunately the byfactor was unacceptable background noise. We solved this problem in a different way, by providing an extra earphone attached to the desk microphone. This allowed a live conversation, based on a just-worked laboratory exercise between the teacher and a selected student, to be heard by the whole group. Other students who may be in difficulty can attract the teacher's attention by use of the Call Button (this situation corresponds to the raising of the hand in the classroom). The caller may then be switched into the group and also be heard by everyone. We have now decided to incorporate this facility, and the appropriate main function switch is called Group Intercommunication.

This Intercommunication Button is provided as a facility which was not previously available. On the other hand, we have deprived the instructor of the possibility of the simultaneous transfer of two or more programmes, because we feel that this facility is very rarely, if ever, used; if the instructor is ever faced with heterogeneous groups the answer is to give them individual stock tapes. We have also removed the facility of using the control desk for the preparation of materials because we, ourselves, have both a studio and preparation room, but if we did not have these we would simply arrange to couple the External Trolley to the Control Desk Recorder.

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x) Details of the use of this procedure can be found in the article "Improving the effectiveness of Language Laboratory Work" by L. Ross, Audio-Visual Language Journal, Spring, 1970.

To demonstrate the simplicity and flexibility of our streamlined model, we would like to offer just one example of a Laboratory Teaching Procedure. Imagine a structure drill is transmitted to the students (which means that the Desk Recorder Transfer Button is depressed). By monitoring, the instructor discovers that the students cannot cope satisfactorily, e.g. the pauses are too short, and decides to change over to a live recording in order to provide longer pauses. He presses the Microphone Transfer Button, which automatically stops the Desk Recorder without affecting the booth machines, and he commences his reading. If the tape was a recording of the teacher's own voice, the change from tape to live recording might not even be noticed by the students. Alternatively, if, by monitoring, the instructor discovers that the students cannot cope with the material, not because the pauses are too short, but because they have insufficient knowledge of vocabulary or grammar, the Group Intercommunication Button could be depressed. This would stop both desk and student machines and the instructor could then ask individual students one by one to form the required sentences, correcting and explaining the mistakes as in the classroom. Having finished a particular exercise in this way, the instructor could then present this same material for the students to do all together by depressing the Desk Transfer Button and restarting the programme.

On our existing equipment, the changeover from Desk Recorder transfer to Microphone transfer is also possible, but it requires the manipulation of eight controls, five of which are multi-positional.

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Sprechfertigkeitstest: Lernzielgerechte Leistungskontrolle im Sprachlabor und ihre technologischen Probleme

1. Mündliche Prüfverfahren im Fremdsprachenunterricht

Obwohl die Diskussion um die Kurrikulumreform für den Fremdsprachenunterricht in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland keineswegs abgeschlossen angesehen werden kann, darf man davon ausgehen, dass, zumindest in der Theorie, dem Lernziel Sprechfertigkeit auf der Sekundarstufe I (Schüler zwischen 10 und 15 Jahren umfassend) der Primat zukommt. Die erste Phase des Sprachunterrichts ist dabei durch die Bildung situationsgerechter sprachlicher Automatismen gekennzeichnet.[1] Die Schüler sollen in die Lage versetzt werden, die fremde Sprache als Kommunikationsmittel in Alltagssituationen aktiv gebrauchen zu können, bevor sie, überwiegend auf der Sekundarstufe II, mit literarischen, fachsprachlichen oder wissenschaftlichen Texten konfrontiert werden. Die Lehrpläne der Bundesländer tragen dem seit einiger Zeit Rechnung,[2] es erscheinen inzwischen auch Lehrwerke mit integrierten audiovisuellen Komponenten, die einen am Mündlichen orientierten Unterricht begünstigen.[3] Fachdidaktiker und Unterrichtstechnologen planen und bauen Lehrräume mit Gerätekonstellationen, die dem Unterricht in der gesprochenen Sprache optimale Bedingungen verschaffen sollen.[4]

Ein am Mündlichen orientierter Unterricht stellt an den Fremdsprachenlehrer hohe Anforderungen in didaktischer und methodischer Hinsicht. Das Problem, das dem Praktiker im Zusammenhang mit dem Lernziel Sprechfertigkeit jedoch am meisten zu schaffen macht, und dessen praktikable Lösung noch aussteht, ist die Überprüfung der Lernfortschritte hin-

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[1] Albert Barrera-Vidal, "Thesen zur kurrikularen Reform des Fremdsprachenunterrichts am Beispiel des Französischen", Die Neueren Sprachen 21, 4 (1972), 205

[2] Vgl. z. B. die Lehrpläne zur Orientierungsstufe der Bundesländer Bayern, Hessen, Niedersachsen und Schleswig-Holstein, zusammengefasst dargestellt in Helmut Heuer, Curriculum: Englisch, PRAXIS-Dokumentation, Heft 1 (Dortmund, 1972), S 16 f

[3] z. B. English, How Do You Do, Passport to English

[4] Vgl. z. B. Klaus Oltmann und Gerd Schleiffer, "Stufenbezogene Medienverbundsysteme im neusprachlichen Unterricht", Neue Unterrichtspraxis 6,6 (1973), 373-381, sowie Wolfgang Mackiewicz und Dieter Windt, "Sprachlabor und multi-medialer Fremdsprachenunterricht", PRAXIS II, 1 (1974), 11-18

sichtlich dieser Zielsetzung.[1] An unseren Schulen (und Hochschulen) besteht die paradoxe Situation, dass zwar der Primat des Mündlichen anerkannt wird, der Lernfortschritt der Schüler aber wegen des Fehlens praktikabler Kontrollverfahren nach wie vor an schriftlichen Leistungen gemessen wird. Da sich jedoch Lernziele und Prüfungsformen gegenseitig bedingen, d. h. man einerseits nur das prüfen kann, was vorher als Lernziel festgesetzt wurde und andererseits nur das als Lernziel festgesetzt werden kann, was sich auch prüfen lässt, kommen wir nicht umhin, ein geeignetes Instrumentarium zu entwerfen, das die Überprüfung der mündlichen Leistung zumindest gleichwertig neben die schriftlichen Leistungsüberprüfungen stellt. Anderenfalls müsste konsequenterweise auf das Lernziel Sprechfertigkeit verzichtet werden.[2]

Der Versuch, die Beurteilung der Schülerbeiträge zum Unterrichtsgespräch, z. B. durch die Verwendung von Bewertungsbögen, objektiver zu machen, ist ein Schritt in die richtige Richtung.[3] Noch weiter geht der Vorschlag, die traditionellen schriftlichen Klassenarbeiten durch genormte Interviews mit zwei oder drei Lehrern zu ersetzen.[4]

Objektivität verlangt den Vergleich der Leistungen der verschiedenen Mitglieder der Unterrichtsgruppe oder Klasse untereinander, der erst die Rangstufen der Leistungen angibt.[5] Diese Vergleichbarkeit ist nicht gegeben, wenn inhaltlich und formal verschiedene Leistungen in Einzelprüfungen nacheinander bewertet werden und die Ergebnisse wegen der Flüchtigkeit der gesprochenen Sprache nicht mehr nachprüfbar sind. Das ist vor allem der Fall, wenn Beiträge zum Unterrichtsgespräch bewertet werden. Das genormte Interview schliesst die inhaltliche Verschiedenheit der Schülerantworten durch die Normierung weitgehend aus und sichert hinreichende Objektivität durch das Vorhandensein von mehreren Prüfern. Der grosse personelle und organisatorische Aufwand lässt dieses Verfahren jedoch als wenig praktikabel erscheinen.

Ausreichend objektiv und zugleich praktikabel scheint nur der mündliche Test zu sein. Von den verschiedenen Arten von Sprachtests interessiert uns in erster Linie der Lernfort-

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[1] Günter Kotte, "Hörverständnis und Sprechfertigkeit", PRAXIS 21, 1 (1974), 90 f

[2] Wolfgang Steinbrecht, "Über Sprechfähigkeit und mündliche Prüfungen", PRAXIS 19, 3 (1972), 320

[3] Vgl. Burghard Dretzke, "Grenzen und Möglichkeiten der objektiven Leistungsmessung mündlicher Sprachäusserungen im Englischunterricht", Die Neueren Sprachen 73, 1 (1974), 47-55

[4] Steinbrecht, a. a. O.

[5] A. Göller, Zensuren und Zeugnisse (Stuttgart, 1968), S. 80

schrittstest,[1] der sich am durchgenommenen Stoff orientiert. Soweit er nicht in das Lehrwerk integriert ist, muss er vom Lehrer als informeller Test oder Kurztest selbst entwickelt werden. Anleitung und Anregung dazu liefern z. B. die Handbücher von Lado, Valette und Breuer.[2]

Man kann Sprechfertigkeit direkt oder indirekt testen. Beim indirekten Verfahren wird die Sprechfertigkeit auf dem Umweg über das rezeptive Pendant Hörverstehen geprüft, also ohne dass der Prüfling selbst spricht. Die Konstrukteure solcher Tests gehen davon aus, dass ein Sprecher, der ein Phonem, ein Wort oder eine Wortsequenz identifizieren oder nach Gleichklang oder Reim richtig zuordnen kann, auch in der Lage ist, dieses Phonem, dieses Wort oder diese Sequenz korrekt auszusprechen. Der Vorteil indirekter Prüfverfahren liegt zweifellos darin, dass sie die Anwendung verschiedenster Techniken, so z. B. auch die der Auswahlantwort (multiple choice) gestatten. Sie sind besonders einfach durchzuführen und auszuwerten und deshalb weit verbreitet. Ihr Nachteil ist, dass sie grösste Sorgfalt bei der Konstruktion und eine aufwendige Validierung erfordern. Das lässt sie als Form für den informellen Lernfortschrittstest ungeeignet erscheinen. Aber auch in der anspruchsvollen Form des formellen Tests sind sie kein vollwertiger Ersatz für direkte Prüfverfahren, bei denen der Prüfling wirklich spricht,[3] denn "the only way to know if a person can speak or write is to have him speak or write".[4]

Fassen wir zusammen, so muss ein Prüfungsverfahren, das Sprechfertigkeit direkt und objektiv misst und das gleichwertig neben den schriftlichen Klassenarbeiten stehen kann, folgenden Bedingungen genügen:

1. Formale und inhaltliche Vergleichbarkeit der Leistungen.
2. Gleiche äussere Bedingungen und gleiche Zeit zur Lösung der Aufgaben für alle Mitglieder der Testpopulation.
3. Direkte (d. h. Ton-)Aufzeichnung der Leistungen zum Zwecke des Vergleichs und der Dokumentation.
4. Unabhängigkeit des Ortes und Zeitpunkts der Auswertung des Tests vom Ort und vom Zeitpunkt seiner Durchführung.

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[1] Auf die verschiedenen Arten von Sprachtests kann hier nicht weiter eingegangen werden. Vgl. dazu z. B. Rebecca M. Valette, Tests im Fremdsprachenunterricht (Berlin, 1971), S. 14 ff

[2] Robert Lado, Language Testing (London, 1961); Valette, a. a. O.; Vera Breuer, Englisch: Tests und objektive Leistungsmessung (Dornburg-Frickhofen, 1974)

[3] Lado, a. a. O., S. 96; John A. Upshur, "Das Testen mündlicher Leistungen", in Testen: Probleme der objektiven Leistungsmessung im neusprachlichen Unterricht, zusammengestellt und bearbeitet von Heinrich Schrand (Berlin, 1973), S. 63

[4] Peter Robinson, "Oral expression tests I", English Language Teaching 26, 2 (1972), 155

Die formale und inhaltliche Vergleichbarkeit der Leistungen lässt sich durch die Stellung gleicher Aufgaben und eine geeignete Wahl der Anweisungen und Stimuli erreichen. Gleiche äussere Bedingungen sind in der Regel in Gruppenprüfungen gegeben, die auch die Forderung nach gleicher Lösungszeit erfüllen. Die gleichzeitige Tonaufzeichnung der Leistungen einer grösseren Testgruppe ist nur mittels einer HSA-Sprachlehranlage möglich.[1]

Ich werde im folgenden die technischen Möglichkeiten, die das Sprachlabor für die Durchführung und Auswertung von Sprachtests bietet, näher untersuchen und zeigen, weshalb Gruppenprüfungen zur direkten Sprechfertigkeitskontrolle im Sprachlabor aufwendig und zeitraubend sind, um dann meine Vorstellungen von einem Aufzeichnungsgerät für Testzwecke zu entwickeln, das diesen Aufwand auf ein vernünftiges Mass reduzieren hilft.

2. Die Aufzeichnung mündlicher Testleistungen im Sprachlabor

"Sprachlabor" ist ein historischer Begriff und lässt, wegen der heute möglichen Vielfalt der Gerätekombinationen, keinen eindeutigen Schluss auf die im Einzelfall vorliegende technische Realisierung zu. Unter "Sprachlabor" soll hier eine Anlage verstanden werden, auf die die Merkmale einer der drei im folgenden beschriebenen Gerätekombinationen zutreffen.

- Die Sprachtrainingsanlage, in der einfachsten Version manchmal auch H(Hör-)-Labor genannt, erlaubt den Schülern, über Kabel oder drahtlos (Induktionsschleife) im Kopfhörer das von einer Programmquelle abgespielte Programm zu empfangen. Bei einer Variante dieser Anlage verfügen die Schüler statt über einfache Kopfhörer über Mikrophon-Kopfhörer-Kombination (MKK) und Audioaktiv-Verstärker, so dass sie ihre eigene Stimme neben der des Programmsprechers elektronisch verstärkt im Kopfhörer hören können. Sprachtrainingsanlagen sind in der Regel mobil.

- Die HS(Hör-Sprech-) oder AA(Audioaktiv)-Anlage versorgt eine oder mehrere Schülergruppen über Kabel mit Programmen von einer oder mehreren Programmquellen. Der Audioaktiv-Verstärker gibt der Anlage ihren Namen. Die HS-Anlage unterscheidet sich von der Sprachtrainingsanlage durch eine Intercom-Schaltung, die dem Lehrer die Möglichkeit gibt, jeden Schüler einzeln abzuhören und mit ihm in Gegensprechverbindung zu treten, wenn Lernhilfen erforderlich sind. HS-Anlagen besitzen in der Regel eine Mitschnitt-Einrichtung, die es dem Lehrer erlaubt, die Leistungen einzelner Schüler am Lehrerpult aufzuzeichnen. HS-Anlagen sind meistens stationär.

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[1] Vgl. dazu Klaus Holeczek, "Aufwertung und Objektivierung der Leistung im mündlichen Sprachunterricht", PRAXIS 19, 4 (1972), 432 f., sowie Dretzke, a. a. O., S. 54

- HSA (Hör-Sprech-Aufnahme)- oder AAC (Audio-aktiv-Comparativ)-Anlagen bieten über die Möglichkeiten von HS-Anlagen hinaus eine zusätzliche Individualisierung der Arbeit am Schülerplatz. Dies wird erreicht durch ein Tonbandgerät an jedem Schülerplatz, mit dem Programm und Schülerleistung aufgezeichnet werden. Diese Tonbandgeräte können als Spulen- oder Kassettengeräte ausgeführt sein. Sie sind im allgemeinen vom Lehrertisch aus in den wichtigsten Funktionen fernsteuerbar. HSA-Anlagen sind nahezu ausschliesslich stationär.

Von diesen drei Sprachlaborvarianten bieten nur die HS- und die HSA-Anlage die Möglichkeit der Aufzeichnung mündlicher Leistungen. Dabei sind die Unterschiede zwischen den beiden Typen bedeutend.

- HS-Anlage

Die Mitschnitt-Einrichtung ermöglicht die Aufzeichnung der Leistungen einzelner Schüler und somit die Durchführung direkter Sprechfertigkeitstests als Folgen von Einzeltests. Ist die Anlage mehrprogrammig, so können einzelne Schüler nacheinander getestet werden, während der Rest der Klasse ein normales Übungsprogramm bearbeitet.

- HSA-Anlage

Da an jedem Schülerplatz ein Tonbandgerät zur Aufzeichnung der Schülerleistung zur Verfügung steht, ist die HSA-Anlage ein geeignetes Instrument für die Durchführung von Gruppentests zur direkten Kontrolle der Sprechfertigkeit.

Einige Hersteller von Sprachlehranlagen bieten eine sogenannte Testautomatik an, die es erlaubt, die Schülertonbandgeräte durch auf dem Aufgabenband gespeicherte Steuerimpulse jeweils zu Beginn der Aufgabenstellung zu stoppen und sie an deren Ende wieder anlaufen zu lassen, so dass nur die Schülerleistungen aufgezeichnet werden. Dieses Verfahren kann beim Abhören der Testleistungen eine Zeitersparnis von bis zu 50% erbringen, ist aber z. B. bei Aussprachetests wegen der fehlenden Vergleichsmöglichkeit problematisch.

Da ein Gruppentest aus zeitlichen und organisatorischen Gründen im allgemeinen nicht sofort im Anschluss an seine Durchführung ausgewertet werden kann, ist es notwendig, die Testleistungen zunächst zu archivieren. Eine Archivierung über einen längeren Zeitraum ist oft auch aus rechtlichen Gründen nötig. Am einfachsten ist dies zu bewerkstelligen, indem man die benutzten Tonträger aus den Schülergeräten entfernt und durch andere ersetzt.

Dies Verfahren erfordert besonders wenig Aufwand, wenn es sich bei den Tonträgern um Kassetten handelt. Es könnte sich in diesem Fall empfehlen, für jeden Schüler eine Testkassette anzuschaffen, die wie ein Klassenarbeitsheft archiviert werden kann und alle Tests eines Schuljahres aufnimmt. Schwieriger ist es, wenn die Sprachlehranlage, aus guten Gründen, mit Spulen-Tonbandgeräten ausgerüstet ist. Natürlich kann man auch für jeden Schüler ein Test-Tonband anschaffen und archivieren, aber vor dessen umständlicher und zeitraubender Handhabung werden die meisten Lehrer kapitulieren. Die Verwendung von Testbändern und -Kassetten, die Leistungen eines längeren Zeitraums speichern, birgt darüber hinaus die Gefahr in sich, dass durch eine Fehlbedienung des Lehrers oder durch Manipulationen der Schüler Aufzeichnungen früherer Tests gelöscht werden. Will man dieses Risiko ausschalten, so muss man für jeden Schüler bei jedem Test ein neues Band bzw. eine neue Kassette verwenden. Dadurch steigt jedoch der Bedarf an Material und Archivraum beträchtlich. Kann das nicht in Kauf genommen werden, so wird man die Testleistungen nach Beendigung der Prüfung nacheinander von den Schülergeräten abrufen und mit Hilfe der Mitschnitteinrichtung auf ein einziges Tonband kopieren.[1] Dieser Kopiervorgang erfordert allerdings einen erheblichen zusätzlichen personellen, zeitlichen und organisatorischen Aufwand und blockiert während seiner Dauer die Sprachlehranlage für den Unterrichtsbetrieb. Eine Verkürzung der Kopierzeit lässt sich durch Heraufsetzen der Laufgeschwindigkeit sowohl des abspielenden wie des aufnehmenden Tonbandgerätes erreichen. Obwohl im Prinzip jede Sprachlehranlage, die die Schnellkopie bei der Programmverteilung zulässt, auch in umgekehrter Richtung mit erhöhter Geschwindigkeit kopieren kann, machen die meisten Hersteller nicht von der Möglichkeit Gebrauch, eine entsprechende Schaltung zu realisieren.

Archivierte Testleistungen können zu einem beliebigen Zeitpunkt an einen beliebigen Ort abgehört und ausgewertet werden. Der bei der Beurteilung notwendige Leistungsvergleich zwischen einzelnen Mitgliedern der Testpopulation ist dabei möglich, verursacht durch das erforderliche Auswechseln der Tonträger auf dem Abspielgerät und/oder das Aufsuchen bestimmter Bandstellen jedoch einen nicht zu unterschätzenden Aufwand.

3. Aufzeichnung mündlicher Leistungen mit Hilfe eines mehrkanaligen Aufzeichnungsgerätes

Wir haben gesehen, dass die Durchführung von Sprechfertigkeitstests in der Form der Gruppenprüfung nur im Sprachlabor

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[1] Dieses Verfahren wird seit Jahren im Sprachlabor der Technischen Universität Braunschweig angewandt.

mit HSA-Anlage möglich ist und dass durch die Notwendigkeit, Durchführung und Auswertung der Tests räumlich und zeitlich zu trennen sowie die Testleistungen auf Tonträgern zu archivieren, ein erheblicher personeller, zeitlicher und organisatorischer Aufwand entsteht. Ferner ist deutlich geworden, dass der für die Beurteilung einzelner Leistungen notwendige Vergleich innerhalb der Testgruppe durch die Unhandlichkeit der üblichen Wiedergabegeräte und Tonträger erschwert wird. Diese überwiegend technologischen Probleme könnten durch den Einsatz eines mehrkanaligen Aufnahme- und Wiedergabegerätes gelöst werden, das die Leistungen aller Mitglieder einer Testgruppe im Augenblick der Produktion synchron auf einen einzigen Träger aufzeichnet. Ein solches Gerät kann und muss mobil sein. Seine Verwendung bringt folgende Vorteile:

- Sprechfertigkeitstests in der Form der Gruppenprüfung wären nicht länger an das Vorhandensein eines HSA-Labors gebunden, sondern liessen sich, da die Aufzeichnung unabhängig von den Schüler-Tonbandgeräten erfolgt und der Einsatz des Gerätes technisch nur das Vorhandensein einer Intercom-Einrichtung voraussetzt, ebenso auch im HS-Labor durchführen. Der Einsatz in Verbindung mit einer Sprachtrainingsanlage wäre, mit geringem Mehraufwand, ebenfalls möglich. Sind an deren Schülerplätzen MKK und Audioaktiv-Verstärker vorhanden, so ist lediglich die Schaltung von je einer Tonleitung zum Aufzeichnungsgerät erforderlich.

- Wegen seiner Mobilität könnte das gleiche Gerät nacheinander in verschiedenen Sprachlabors der gleichen Schule eingesetzt werden. Der Anschluss an die bereits vorhandenen Tonleitungen einer HS- oder HSA-Anlage könnte sehr einfach über eine einzige Mehrfach-Steckverbindung am Lehrertisch erfolgen.

- Die Leistungen der einzelnen Schüler liessen sich bei der Auswertung unmittelbar vergleichen. Da sie synchron auf dem gleichen Träger aufgezeichnet wären, genügte die Betätigung eines Wahlschalters, um den jeweils gewünschten Schüler abzuhören.

- Als Dokumentation eines Gruppentests wäre nur ein einziger magnetischer Träger zu archivieren. Der Aufwand für das Auswechseln aller Tonträger einer HSA-Anlage oder das Überspielen aller Testleistungen auf ein Archiv-Tonband entfiele.

- Das mehrkanalige Aufzeichnungs- und Wiedergabegerät liesse sich auch ausserhalb von Tests sinnvoll einsetzen, so z. B. um während der Arbeit im HS-Labor alle Schüler zur Selbstkontrolle nacheinander oder gleichzeitig ihre zentral aufgezeichneten eigenen Leistungen abhören zu lassen. Dies würde die Einsatzmöglichkeiten der HS-Anlage erheblich erweitern. Selbstkontrolle dieser Art ist sonst nur im HSA-Labor möglich.

4. Beschreibung des mehrkanaligen Aufzeichnungsgerätes

Die Aufgabe, mehrere Schülerleistungen - für den Techniker stellen sie sich als NF(Niederfrequens)-Signale dar - gleichzeitig auf einem Träger zu speichern, lässt sich prinzipiell durch zwei Systeme lösen, die im folgenden näher beschrieben werden.

4.1. Das Mehrspur-Gerät

In der gleichen Weise wie mit einem Stereo-Tonbandgerät die Signale von zwei getrennten Tonkanälen gleichzeitig in zwei geometrisch getrennten, parallelen Spuren auf dem Magnetband aufgezeichnet werden, lassen sich die Leistungen verschiedener Schüler nebeneinander aufzeichnen. Leider ist die Zahl der nebeneinander auf einem Magnetband unterzubringenden Spuren begrenzt. Realisiert sind heute Magnetbandgeräte, die auf 1 Zoll breitem Band (das allgemein übliche Magnetband ist 1/4 Zoll breit) 16 Spuren aufzeichnen.[1] Sicher liesse sich die Anzahl der Spuren durch eine Reduzierung der Spurbreite und/oder eine Verbreitung des Bandes noch heraufsetzen. Die praktische Verwendbarkeit von Mehrspurgeräten für Testzwecke hängt jedoch davon ab, ob es der Industrie gelingt, ein zuverlässiges, relativ handliches Bandgerät gute Tonqualität mit einer ausreichenden Spurenzahl zu einem akzeptablen Preis auf den Markt zu bringen. Das erscheint zweifelhaft, da ein solches Gerät vor allem wegen der enormen Anforderungen an die mechanische Präzision einen hohen technischen Aufwand erfordert.

4.2. Das elektronische Mehrkanal-System

Wegen der mechanischen Schwierigkeiten, die das Mehrspur-Verfahren mit sich bringt, scheint uns eine elektronische Lösung des Problems der erfolgversprechendere Weg zu sein. Anstatt die einzelnen NF-Signale in geometrisch getrennten Spuren auf dem Tonträger aufzuzeichnen, werden sie bei diesem Verfahren zunächst zu einem einzigen elektrischen Signal gemischt und erst danach aufgezeichnet. Bei der Wiedergabe wird dann die elektronische Trennung in die ursprünglichen Signale vorgenommen. Dabei wird die gleiche Technik benutzt, mit der ein Radiogerät aus dem vermeintlichen Chaos der im Äther schwirrenden Stimmen die Stimme eines Sprechers herausfiltert, oder die Technik, die es erlaubt, 100 Telephongespräche gleichzeitig über eine Richtfunkstrecke zu schicken, sie am Ende aber den richtigen Fernsprechteilnehmern einzeln zuzuleiten.

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[1] Heinrich Rindfleisch, Magnetbandtechnik (Agfa-Gevaert Schriftenreihe für Photo und Magnetband, 728), Leverkusen 1971, S.48

Technisch geht das so vor sich, dass entweder die einzelnen NF-Signale verschiedenen Trägerwellen aufmoduliert werden, die frequenzmässig gegeneinander versetzt sind, oder dass man den einzelnen NF-Signalen in regelmässigen, sehr kurzen Zeitabständen Stichproben entnimmt, die Impulsreihen bilden, welche mit den Impulsreihen der anderen NF-Signale zeitlich ineinandergeschachtelt werden.[1] Bei der Wiedergabe sorgen Frequenzbandfilter bzw. elektronische Zeitschalter dafür, dass die richtigen Trägerwellen bzw. Impulsreihen demoduliert werden, so dass die gewünschten NF-Signale wieder hörbar sind.

Welchen Anforderungen muss nun das eigentliche Aufzeichnungsgerät, dass das gemischte Signal speichert und wiedergibt, für Testzwecke im Fremdsprachenunterricht genügen? Wenn wir davon ausgehen, dass das einzelne NF-Signal (d. h. die mündliche Schülerleistung) eine Frequenzbandbreite von 15 kHz aufweist,[2] dann ist für die Aufzeichnung dieses einen Signals im Mehrkanalsystem eine Bandbreite von ca. 30 kHz erforderlich; denn um eine einwandfreie Trennung zu erzielen, muss zu den benachbarten Signalen ein "Sicherheitsabstand" eingehalten werden. Für die gleichzeitige Aufzeichnung von 30 Signalen ist somit eine Bandbreite von 30 x 30 kHz = 900 kHz notwendig. Ein normales Tonbandgerät kommt für die Aufzeichnung eines so breitbandigen Signals natürlich nicht in Frage, da es für die wesentlich geringere Bandbreite des menschlichen Hörvermögens konzipiert ist. Handelsübliche Geräte zur Videoaufzeichnung (z. B. Videorecorder), die Frequenzen einer Bandbreite bis zu 4 MHz (4000 kHz) aufzeichnen können, erfüllen diese Anforderung. Diese Geräte arbeiten mit Magnetband von 1/4 bis 2 Zoll Breite, z. T. in Kassetten, sowie neuerdings mit Magnetplatten. Ihre Bandbreite von bis zu 4 MHz bietet die Möglichkeit, mehr als 100 in der beschriebenen Weise gemischte Tonsignale gleichzeitig zu speichern. Welches Gerät aus dem breiten Angebot der Industrie für die Verwendung in einem mehrkanaligen Aufzeichnungssystem in Frage kommt, ist nach den Kriterien der einfachen Handhabung und der Preiswürdigkeit zu entscheiden. Die besten Voraussetzungen dafür scheint das Magnetplattengerät zu besitzen.

Die Blockschaltbilder zeigen Aufbau (Abb. 1) und Arbeitsweise (Abb. 2 - 4) des gesamten Speichersystems.

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[1] Das erste Verfahren nennt man Trägerfrequenz- das zweite Zeit-Multiplex-Verfahren. Die Impulsreihen können nach verschiedenen Verfahren moduliert werden. Vgl. dazu z. B. Heinrich Schröder, Elektrische Nachrichtentechnik. Bd. 1 (Berlin, 1967), S. 474 ff.

[2] D. h. die Differenz zwischen den tiefsten und den höchsten relevanten Schwingungsanteilen beträgt 15000 Hertz (= Schwingungen pro Sekunde).

Das Speichersystem besteht aus 4 Komponenten: Der Wandler W_1 mischt die von den Schülerplätzen kommenden Signale elektronisch zu einem einzigen breitbandigen Signal. Das eigentliche Speichergerät AW (z. B. ein adaptierter handelsüblicher Videorecorder) zeichnet das breitbandige Signal auf und gibt es bei Bedarf wieder. Ein zweiter Wandler W_2 hat die umgekehrte Funktion wie W_1, d. h. er entmischt das von AW wiedergegebene breitbandige Signal wieder in die ursprüngliche Anzahl von NF-Signalen. Die Schalteinrichtung Z steuert die Funktionen der übrigen 3 Komponenten und schaltet die jeweils benötigten Signalleitungen.

Alle 4 Komponenten sind durch Signalleitungen und Steuerleitungen verbunden. In den Blockdiagrammen sind Signalleitungen als dicke, Steuerleitungen als dünne Linien dargestellt. Jeweils nicht benutzte Leitungen sind gestrichelt gezeichnet.

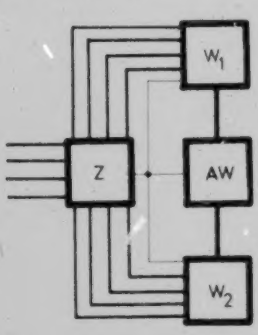

Abb. 1

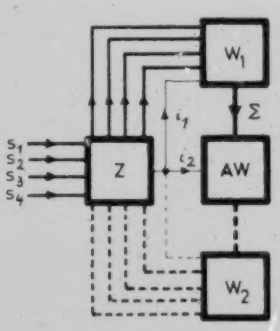

Abb. 2

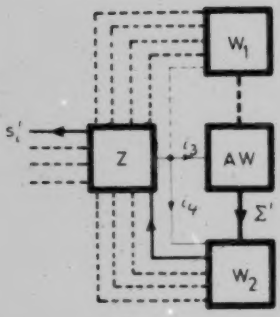

Abb. 3

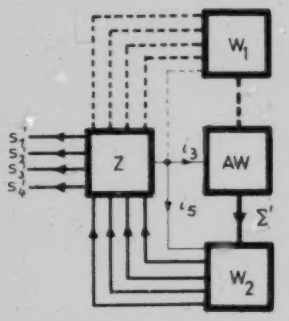

Abb. 4

Bei der Aufnahme (Ab. 2) gelangen die einzelnen, von den Schülerplätzen ausgehenden NF-Signale s_1, s_2, s_3, ..., s_n (in den Blockschaltbildern sind nur 4 eingezeichnet) über getrennte Leitungen vom Lehrertisch der Sprachlehranlage über die Schalteinrichtung Z zum Wandler W_1. Z gibt an W_1 einen Steuerimpuls i_1 ab, der W_1 veranlasst, die NF-Signale in ein einziges breitbandiges Signal Σ umzuwandeln. Gleichzeitig erhält das Speichergerät AW einen Impuls i_2, der es veranlasst, Σ aufzuzeichnen.

Bei der Wiedergabe (Abb. 3) gibt Z einen Steuerimpuls i_3 an AW, worauf AW das dem aufgenommenen breitbandigen Signal Σ entsprechende Signal Σ' wiedergibt und an den Wandler W_2 weiterleitet. Um ein beliebiges Signal s_i', das dem ursprünglichen Signal s_i entspricht, hörbar zu machen, wird von Z der Steuerimpuls i_4 abgegeben. Dadurch erhält W_2 den Befehl, s_i' aus Σ' herauszufiltern und an Z zurückzugeben, wo es zur Auswertung zur Verfügung steht. Durch einen anderen Steuerimpuls, z. B. i_5, kann Z W_2 auch veranlassen, mehrere ausgewählte oder alle NF-Signale s_1', s_2', s_3', ..., s_n' gleichzeitig über Z und den Lehrertisch der Sprachlehranlage den entsprechenden Schülern zur Selbstkontrolle zurückzugeben (Abb. 4).

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Summary

Oral productive ability is accepted to be the major teaching aim of foreign language instruction at the level of Sekundarstufe I in West German schools. It is usually by means of written tests, however, that a pupil's progress is judged. The reason for this contradiction is not so much a lack of oral production tests as the fact that such tests can be carried out adequately only in an AAC-language laboratory and that the expense of carrying them out is enormous.

The application of a new recording device would reduce this expense to a reasonable amount. As the oral production of a whole test-group could be directly recorded onto a single magnetic tape or disc, production tests could be carried out in an AA-lab as well. Scoring could be done anywhere at any time without the need to remove the tapes from the students' booths or to copy them tediously one after the other in order not to obstruct the lab. An additional advantage would be a reduction in the space required for the necessary filing of tests.

Co-operative Learning in the Language Laboratory

In a recent article James R. Nord argues the case of the "Shut-up-and-Listen-Laboratory"[1]. While there is much one would agree with, a few critical remarks would, nevertheless, not be out of place.

It is obvious that much of a native speaker's time is taken up by listening to radio and television programmes etc. It is equally obvious that the native - already in full command of the language - can afford this and that the beginner in a foreign-language class cannot. Nord's case against speaking in the language laboratory rests largely on the argument that "expressive language, speaking and writing, is primarily interactive and interpersonal" and that the student in the laboratory is "boxed in, separated, isolated from his fellow human beings, and talking to himself aloud, a state many people associate with mental illness"[2]. That speaking and writing constitute different codes is a commonplace in linguistics and language teaching nowadays. This critical distinction between the oral and written forms of a language must be pointed out to the student, and he must have the opportunity to practice both of these forms. Of course, intensive listening in the language laboratory helps to "build up a self-monitoring system in the students"[3], and if the sole purpose of Nord's paper were to place greater emphasis on listening-(comprehension) exercises nobody would want to quarrel with him. But to suggest banning speaking from the language laboratory seems to be somewhat improper. I should like to suggest a different course instead, which relieves the student to a certain extent of the feeling that he is "without an audience" in the language laboratory and reduces somewhat the monotony of the customary four-phase drill that is prevalent in Pattern Practice. I believe that co-operative learning in the language laboratory is possible with AAC laboratory systems and helps solve most of the problems Nord has brought to our attention.

By co-operative I do not mean unintentional contamination of student answers, such as appears in AA laboratory systems,

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[1] James R. Nord, "Language Laboratories: A Place to Shut Up and Listen", System, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1974, 4-6

[2] Nord, loc. cit. 4

[3] Nord, loc. cit. 6

when students work "lock-step'. And I do not mean the sporadic co-operation that goes on in both AA and AAC systems, when the teacher converses with individual students via intercom. By co-operative I mean the systematic co-operation between pairs and groups of students who have learned "to detect errors in other student speakers rather than being influenced by them"[1] prior to engaging in activities of the sort I propose to describe.

Nowadays, most AAC laboratories are equipped with two connection sockets for student head-sets. By plugging in the head-set of student A to the connection socket of student B pairs of learners can easily be formed. Student B - in full command of his tape recorder - assumes the role of programme administrator and controller. On completion of the exercise, the students reverse roles. This procedure reduces the speaking time of student B by 50 per cent, while at the same time it doubles the amount of time that the monitoring teacher can devote to the pairs of learners Note that it cannot be a question of replacing "old-style" individualized instruction completely. Co-operative learning should step in where the flaws of individualized instruction are only too obvious.

Areas of Application

It has often been noted that the capacity or willingness of students to detect and subsequently correct their mistakes is very poor indeed. Up to 70 per cent of student mistakes are said to pass by uncorrected.[2]

1. Pronunciation Exercises

Preliminary sound-discrimination exercises can do much to allepiate such situations. At the very least, it can be shown that mispronunciations, should they occur after successful sound-discrimination has taken place, cannot normally be attributed to faulty hearing. On the whole, experimenters have been quite successful in showing that sound-discrimination is adductive to better pronunciation. Where they have failed, it can sometimes be shown that flaws in the experimental design account for the failure.[3]

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[1] Nord, loc. cit. 6

[2] Cf. N. Lademann, "20 Fragen der Ausstattung von Sprachlabors für allgemeinbildenden Schulen", in: H. Gutschow (ed.) Erfahrungsberichte aus der Sprachlaborarbeit, Berlin & Bielefeld, 1967, 36-41.

[3] Cf. P. Pimsleur, "Discrimination Training in the Teaching of French Pronunciation", Modern Language Journal, No. 47, 1963, 199-203, where students apparently managed to discriminate between [ɔ] and [o], as in French "chaud" and English "show", but could not differentiate between the two when asked to reproduce the sounds. The Ss. arrived at correct answers by simply eliminating the "un-American" sounds.

However, the assumption underlying such training, viz. that "perceptual and productive interference patterns" are similar, has recently been shown to be invalid in the case of Hungarian learners of English.[1] On the contrary, Nemser was able to demonstrate that there exists an "apparent independence of the perceptual and productive modalities in the interpretation of alien phonemes"[2]. Language teachers have known this all the time, but chose to ignore the fact. If by means of sound-discrimination and identification exercises students can be successfully and rapidly trained to tell good from poor pronunciation, why should those same students not be employed in a co-operative situation to give immediate feedback to their fellow-students engaged in acquiring a good pronunciation? The student at the tape-recorder will press the recap facility and rewind the tape if he judges his partner's pronunciation to be faulty. Partners unable to compromise can refer their case to the teacher, whose monitoring capacity - as mentioned before - has been increased by 100 per cent. Eventual success of this procedure depends, however, to a large degree on whether the students have been informed and persuaded that they are not engaged in a competitive but in a co-operative task. A first try-out has convinced me that this is a practical and workable solution. The results are encouraging.

2. Pattern Drills

Pattern Drills ought to be organized as four-phase drills. This is an assumption of fairly wide currency, almost an axiom.[3] However, the drawbacks of this method of organizing the learning material are well-known. Advocates and opponents of the language laboratory alike note the monotony of four-phase drills and point out that these are a far cry from real-life situations. I am not alluding to the so-called mechanical drills, but to the fact that all institutionalized foreign-language instruction that does not take place in natural, i. e. foreign surroundings must necessarily be artificial to a certain extent and that the dilemma is aggravated when four-phase drills are employed.

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[1] W. Nemser, "The predictability of interference phenomena in the English speech of native speakers of Hungarian", in: G. Nickel (ed.) Papers in Contrastive Linguistics, Cambridge, 1971, 89-96.

[2] Nemser, loc. cit., 95.

[3] Phasing of language laboratory exercises is discussed in E. Roth, "Phasen-Übungen in Sprachlabor und Klassenraum", Das Sprachlabor und der audiovisuelle Unterricht, 1/1969, 14-19. Cf. also I. Heuser & H. Messelken, "Zum didaktischen Wert des Vierphasenrhythmus in der Sprachlaborarbeit", Das Sprachlabor und der audiovisuelle Unterricht, 3/1969, 76-80.

In theory, phase 4 fulfills an overlearning function, while a reinforcement function is attributed to phase 3. In reality students in AA systems often use phase 3 as a prompt that enables them to cope with the next item of the series, particularly so, if "saturation practice"[1] is reduced to two examples at the beginning of the exercise. It has already been mentioned that phase 4 hardly performs the way it was intended to.[2]

I know of one case, where the experimenters tried to do without phase 4 of a regular four-phase drill.[3] Students were asked to imitate phase 3 if, and only if, after comparing they thought they had detected a mistake in their answer. This technique will not lead to a reduction of the time needed to complete the exercise. In a co-operative setting, however, phase 4 is expendable. And so is phase 3 if the controlling students are provided with written materials that contain the right answers. Leupold discusses this possibility in a classroom setting.[4] Unfortunately he stops short of the language laboratory. Besides, I do not believe that the answer sheets should simply be issued to the students. Students should be given an opportunity to work out the right answers for themselves during a period of individualized instruction preceding the coupling of student booths. This means that two sets of comparable programmes must be available to the teacher. By comparable I mean that the two programmes cover the same kinds of structural phenomena, differing maybe only in lexis or register or situational context etc. Students A and B will have to work through their respective programmes individually, filling out the blanks of their answer sheets immediately or, if necessary, during the second run-through, before they are allowed to use this controlling device in a co-operative situation with their partners. Ideally this results in two-phase quasi-conversations - the nearest we can get to real-life situations in the language laboratory. Learner mistakes will be immediately and effectively corrected. The students, who under normal conditions (four-phase drills) suffer a 50 per cent loss in speaking time, will be compensated for this reduction in that less time

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[1] King/Mathieu/Holton, Technik und Arbeitsformen des Sprachlabors, Berlin & Bielefeld, 1965, 107

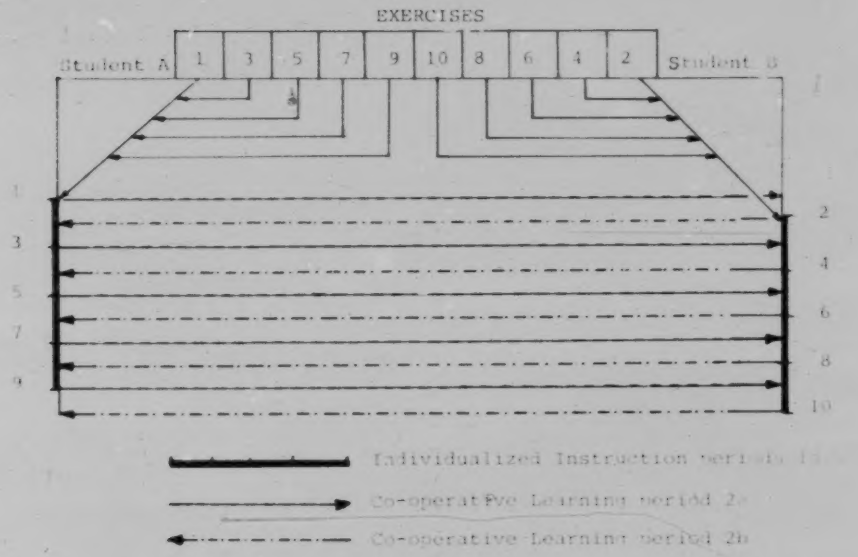
[2] Cf. G. Desselmann, Übungsgestaltung im Sprachlabor, Leipzig, 1972, p. 42

[3] W. Preibusch & U. Asheuer, Stimulusbeschaffenheit und Verhalten in der vierten Phase bei Sprachlaborprogrammen, PZ Berlin, 1969

[4] E. Leupold, "Didaktisch-methodische Überlegungen zum Einsatz von Strukturübungen", Französisch an Volkshochschulen, 2/1971, 52-57

is taken up to complete the exercises. The same amount of learning material can be worked through in one period of co-operative learning with two-phase drills as in completely individualized instruction with four-phase drills. To an illustration consider the following hypothetical case.

Two comparable language laboratory programmes, consisting of 5 exercises each, are available to the students. During the first individualized period students A and B work through their programmes as indicated in the diagram below (periods 1a & 1b). This takes up 30 minutes of their time. Only two-phase (pre-recorded) versions will be used during periods 2a and 2b.



Student B works through exercises 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9 under the supervision of student A (15 minutes). Student A then goes through exercises 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10, which again lasts 15 minutes. Thus the same amount of material (10 exercises) is done in a time span (1 hour) that an ordinary four-phase drill would have required, the advantage being that during periods 2a and 2b a closer approximation to normal (classroom) conversational activities is reached. The inherent monotony of four-phase drills can be avoided and application

of previously learned material can be practiced immediately in newly encountered situations. A pilot study to show the practicability of this procedure is under way. Extension of this technique to other areas - such as reading-, interpreting-exercises etc. - is possible.

With a live partner to react appropriately to their utterances student motivation should increase. They need not feel that they are without an audience and they will be better prepared for what goes on in "a classroom where the talking abounds"[1]. The language laboratory is a place for students to speak up!

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Notes on a Group Work French Teaching Project

Concerning reports on experiments it has been often remarked that negative information rarely gets into print. It is perhaps worth stating at the outset that these notes relate to a stage in a language project that was a qualified failure. The qualification is not totally insignificant, however, since the experience derived when things go awry can be more instructive than the results of 'successful' programmes, whose reasons for success are sometimes accidental or unexamined.

In the pilot stage of the Nuffield Resources for Learning project[1] described here, an ordinary classroom temporarily equipped with 15 tape-recorders and movable partitions was used to see what problems arose when a number of subjects from the normal curriculum were taught to a class of 13-year olds by self-paced materials. The generally favourable reaction of the students and teachers involved led to French being included among a group of subjects presented to six comprehensive school classes of 13-year olds in a self-paced situation. The age group selected had the advantages of not being too close to public examinations and of offering a realistic teaching sample, since the third-year secondary school student is rarely easy to teach. Realism in the economic sense was obtained by reducing the number of tape recorders to one per four students.[2] Each machine was linked to a junction box and six low-cost stethoscope headsets; these headsets are sometimes rejected by education authorities on the grounds of hygiene, but are so much less expensive than the sets supplied with language laboratories that their purchase on the basis of one per pupil is feasible. Mains-operated slide viewers and slide sets were also originally envisaged as an integral part of the materials, but it was subsequently found that the slides did not allow enough flexibility in the redesign of exercises, because they could not be quickly modified. At the same time it quickly became evident that a cheap fixed slide viewer and a miscellany of slides are one of the simplest ways of providing an alternative visual stimulus in self-instruction which is always

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[1] Taylor, L.C., Resources for Learning, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, 2nd ed., 1972, pp. 254-5

[2] For variation in the levels of equipment available in English schools see Schools Council Working Paper No. 19, H.M.S.O., London, 1969, pp. 12-15

threatened by the acres of black print syndrome, especially where some form of frame programming is being used.

The original intention for French was to try out learning packages initially covering a year's work. Teachers were asked to use the material in sequence, intercalating their own lessons - whether lockstep or self-paced - in whatever ratio class conditions seemed to require. The text was separated into 21 units, each unit stowed for individual use in manilla envelopes. Each section was subdivided into numbered micro-units so that matching tapework and written material could be made easier. Ancillary material developed on an ad hoc basis included an illustrated French-French dictionary without which a number of crossword clues could not be solved, French 'Scrabble' and filecards for the listing and group testing of words and phrases acquired during the year. The tape work for the units was produced on six 5 3/4" (14 1/2 cm) tapes, the larger format being chosen to avoid a plethora of small boxes to be stored in an ordinary classroom and in order to reduce dubbing problems. The audio programme included traditional laboratory exercises without overt response (allowing for eventual replacement of recorders by playback machines) and additional matter for variety. This included map routes to be drawn in response to taped instructions, coded figures to be joined according to spoken sequences, rôle-playing exercises and scripted conversations between an English speaker and French Assistants to provide human interest in a mixture of English and French. The starting point for these conversations on the production side was an unscripted half-hour French conversation eliciting details of biographical and cultural interest which was then scripted into a number of mini-dialogues, with the interviewer re-interpreting some of the answers in English or asking for further explanation of some of the vocabulary used by interviewees.

There were two main difficulties which were not adequately solved in the 1968-70 span of the project. The range of ability between the graded classes was very wide and the teaching methods to which they had been exposed were equally divergent. Where one class had never written any French, another had avoided oral work almost entirely, grammatical analysis contrasted with sunburn techniques, and syllabuses varied from limitation to the present tense to consolidation of four or five tenses. At the root of the problem lies the highly sequential nature of the normal foreign language syllabus with its simultaneous elaboration of interlocking skills. Even in mathematics, given an initial numeracy, it is possible to present a new topic area to students with divergent mathematical backgrounds, whereas the corresponding potentialities in language teaching are confined to areas such as training in phonetic discrimination or transmission of 'background' information on customs and culture of relevant geographical areas.

Most teachers were agreeably surprised by the way equipment was handled, and it was occasionally maintained that the educational value of learning to use equipment and adjust to the social procedures of the small group was a more important issue than subject content. Others found the frustrations of using tape-recorders in a group situation distinctly counterproductive, especially where a number of different approaches were tried in short succession in order to develop features such as accurate self-marking. Very often it was discovered that a tape commanded more attention than expected from an inattentive student, but that only the general drift was being absorbed, while instructions to turn off the tape at specific points in the units were ignored or failed to register. Other major factors inhibiting efficiency were the variations in hearing ability among members of a group listening to the same audio source and the absence of a tapescript for the teachers who sometimes felt they were too solidly isolated from the work any given foursome of students might be engaged in at any point, and were unable to give procedural advice without time-consuming replaying of instructions. Some teachers overcame this problem by taking a class through sections of the text together and then letting groups work at their own pace for two or three subsequent lessons, but this was liable to cause hardware problems if the class were bunched together at some stage and wished to use, for example, slide viewers which could be effectively used by only two students at a time.

In language teaching some of the advantages of self-pacing are due to the mediatory role the teacher can play as soon as a piece of equipment or programme becomes temporarily the major source of information. Some students not usually for unpromoted organization of work would start before the arrival of a teacher and another who would never dream of asking for help in a class situation where the teacher was the source of the information would be more disposed to seek cooperation with the teacher.

So that these advantages could be more effectively explored it seemed sensible to revise the criteria for the organization of group work materials. Some principles that need consideration are:
(i) that any self-instruction material and accompanying hardware aimed at all-ability groups should lend themselves to a marked simplicity of organization. The fewer transfers of attention from written to audio material the better. A regularity of method is essential from a practical viewpoint and signals such as musical tones on tapes should have one clear function only.
(ii) that for many audio activities, working in pairs seems to be preferable.[1] Though this may mean shifting pupils from

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[1] Marty, F., Teaching French, Audio-Visual Publications, Roanoke, 1968, p. 123

one location to another if a low level of hardware is used, larger groups increase the possibility of social or audio incompatibility. Paired operation also simplifies the construction of exercises. When groups of four were working together, so as to obviate rote order answering of questions on tape, each student assumed an epicene French name and answered examples prefaced with this name occurring at random intervals: in practice the absence of students from a group caused even more artificiality of response.

(iii) that there is a need for more cross-fertilization of ideas from all levels of the educational system, elementary to tertiary. In particular, there is a need to correlate experience gained from sources such as the large scale production of materials by the École Moderne[1], techniques of remedial teaching, teachers of English as a second language[2], experiments of the type undertaken by C. H. von Mentzner in Sweden[3] and the all-too easily overlooked inspiration of early innovators such as Norman MacMunn with his paired learning programme in French[4] and H. E. Palmer's advocacy of auto-instructional indexed cards[5].

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[1] Freinet, C., Les Techniques Freinet de l'École Moderne, Armand Colin, Paris, 4th ed., 1969

[2] See for example Greenwood, G. and Widlake, P., "A Language Scheme for Teaching English to Immigrants", Aspects of Educational Technology, Methuen, London, 1967, pp. 51-64

[3] Von Mentzner, C. H., "Summary of an Investigation of Pupil Activities and Learning Situations in English Studies in Grade 7", School Research Newsletter No. 34, (1966), National Board of Education, Stockholm

[4] MacMunn, N., MacMunn Differential Partnership Method, 6 vols., Bell, London, 1914-15

[5] Palmer, H. E. and Redman, H. V., This Language Learning Business, Oxford U.P., London, 1969, p. 138

A Language Aptitude Test for the Japanese (GTT)

I. Research Plan

In order to develop a valid measure of language aptitude, we planned a four-step program of research. The first step was to arrive at a list of skills that are assumed to be indicative of language aptitude. After we had this list, the next step was to build a battery of tests composed of subtests to measure those skills.

The third step was to try out our tests in order to discover what connection there is between language learning ability and the scores on the subtests. From this pretest, as we called it, we hoped to arrive at four or five subtests, all of which would measure different aspects of language aptitude and yet show a high correlation with language learning ability.

The fourth and final step was to try out the revised final form of the test nationwide. Before releasing it for general use, we had to have data to assure our prospective users 1) that the test does in fact measure language aptitude (that it has high validity), 2) that it measures it consistently (that it is reliable), and 3) that the norms of the test are relevant to the group they wish to test.

The pretest was administered to selected groups of students, representing as many different types of learners and study courses as possible. This was essential for two reasons: 1) we wanted to make a widely usable test, and 2) we needed this information in order to prepare a test manual.

II. Building Subtests

Step. 1. Preparing a list of skills indicative of language aptitude.

We began our project by assuming what skills are involved in learning a language and then testing such assumptions. In order to make the aptitude skill list as objective and comprehensive as possible, we asked language teachers and students to participate in preparing the list by answering a questionnaire in the February, 1970, issue of Eigo Kyoiku (English Education), published by Taishukan Publishing Company.

The questionnaire (see Table 1) listed thirty different qualities considered by twenty English teachers to be

possibly related to language learning, and each quality was to be evaluated in one of three ways: a) that it was considered highly helpful for foreign language learning, b) that it was considered a little helpful, or c) that it was considered not helpful. Two hundred thirteen questionnaires were collected and tabulated. In addition to the three possible responses, a fourth figure ("X" column) was calculated by deducting the number of not helpful responses from the number of highly helpful responses. The top ten qualities in the fourth response column were chosen as strong candidates for components of language aptitude (circled items).

Some seventy other qualities were added to the list by respondents. These were combined whenever possible into broader categories to increase their rating, but none of them was considered important by more than a few respondents.

Step 2. Building a battery of aptitude subtests.

Obviously, some qualities on the list can hardly be considered to compose language aptitude. For example, "fondness for foreign language" (item 10) can be greatly influenced by the student's liking of his teachers, classmates, class atmosphere, etc. "Exposure to foreign cultures" (item 21) can also be easily controlled by changing his physical environment. This nature of easy fluctuation by the influence of external factors goes counter to our thesis that aptitude is a set of special skills which the student was born with or has developed through his upbringing. Therefore these aptitude skills are not easily subject to environmental changes or short term training.

Regarding language aptitude, many have raised the question, "Why not use intelligence tests to predict success in foreign languages?" No doubt, I.Q. does correlate with foreign language success, but it is much less related to foreign language success than it is to success in other school subjects. On this point, John B. Carroll says, "Most of the commonly employed intelligence tests measure a number of abilities simultaneously. While a few of these abilities may be relevant to foreign language success, most are not, and their net effect is to depress the correlation of intelligence with foreign language success". (Modern Language Aptitude Test Manual, The Psychological Corporation, New York, 1958, p. 22.)

As we felt that qualities such as "mental concentration ability", "patience", and "imagination" are all reflective of personality traits, we employed the Yadabe-Gilford Personality Test and the Uchida-Clipelin (spelled phonetically) Test, the two such tests most widely used in Japan, to see if the personality qualities measured thereby had any connection with language learning ability.

Taking these points into consideration, we combined the ten top qualities into six factors, upon which the following six subtests were prepared. They were then tested on a population of 290 students studying English in six different courses at the Osaka YMCA English School.

Part 1. Vocabulary Memory Test. This measures the ability to memorize vocabulary in hypothetical languages in a limited period of time. It has two parts: a) a 25-word vocabulary in Roman letters contrasted to Japanese words, and b) a 25-word vocabulary in nonsensical Katakana contrasted to Japanese words.

Part 2. Grammar Test. This measures the ability to understand the grammar of the language system by quickly recognizing the underlying rules of various hypothetical languages from limited information.

Part 3. Tone Recognition Test. This measures the ability to recognize the phonetic levels and glides of speech in a hypothetical language. This ability is considered particularly important for learning a tone language such as Chinese.

Part 4. Speech Mimicking Test. This measures the ability to imitate what is spoken. However, it does not require the subject to mimic orally. It is based on the assumption, validated on a small sample, that the better a person can trace sounds in Katakana, the better he can actually mimic.

Part 5. Memory Retention Test. This measures delayed recall: whether or not one can remember what was once memorized, even after a considerable amount of mental interference.

Part 6. Personality Tests. The Yadabe-Gilford Personality Test and the Uchida-Clipelin Test were employed to measure such personality traits as "mental concentration" and "patience".

Step 3. Evaluating the pretest.

The following discussion is based on data collected from an extremely small sample. Because the population was drawn exclusively from students at the Osaka YMCA, who signed up and paid for English instruction, we believe that the population is not only small, but also atypical, and that they were more highly motivated and confident in their language learning ability than students in the usual non-elective English course in junior or senior high or college. In fact, we called this first administration a pre-pretest to indicate our awareness of the frailty of our sample and the very tentative nature of the conclusions we could confidently draw from the data.

Table 2 reports the arithmetic mean and standard deviation. Because the scores on Part 3 were extremely weak and the item analysis (Table 3) showed Parts 3 and 4 to be weak, these two sections were extensively revised and then pretested on a small sample for purposes of further item analysis (Parts 3' and 4'). Both the mean and standard deviation of all the test groups turned out to be very similar, with the exception of Grade 6, the (M) and (σ) of which were significantly lower and smaller respectively. This indicated that the tests were too complicated for this age group, and therefore we decided to exclude Grade 6 and younger groups from this battery of tests.

The outcome of the two personality tests was carefully examined from different angles. We found no significant correlation between GTT scores and any one trait or the psychologists' overall evaluation.

From the above results, the pretest form of GTT was determined as follows.

Part	Items	Weighted Score	Time (min.)
1. Word Memorization Test	45	45	10
2. Grammar Cognition Test	15	60	17
3. Tone Recognition Test	15	30	5
4. Speech Mimicking Test	15	30	5
5. Memory Retention Test	25	25	3
		190	40

Parts 1 and 5 measure the same type of quality, and Parts 3 and 4 also measure like abilities, those related to the phonic aspect of language. Therefore, the five subtests of GTT can be strategically categorized in the following three areas.

Memorization (Parts 1 and 5)	70 points
Grammar Cognition (Part 2)	60 points
Phonic Sensitivity (Parts 3 and 4)	60 points

This categorization can be used as a diagnostic test of language learning capacity. Suppose that an examinee's scores are average in the first two areas and low in the third. The learner can be expected to experience some difficulty with the audio aspect of language and therefore with the spoken language. It would be of great value for the language teacher as well as the counselor to be able to see in which area or areas the learner is potentially weak or strong, so that the best instructional guidance may be given.

We tested the final form of GTT nationwide on a pretest population of approximately 3,000. The statistical data such as validity and reliability are reviewed in the following chapters.

III. Discussion of the Pretest

1. Validity.

GTT has two functions. One is to predict the level of difficulty the learner will experience in learning a foreign language (predictive function), and the other is to diagnose the student's capacity for learning and handling a foreign language (diagnostic function). In order to prove that GTT is a valid test, high correlation had to be found between the ability of foreign language learning which the student actually possesses and his performance on GTT. In other words, the higher his scores on GTT, the better and faster he should learn a foreign language, and vice versa.

One way to measure how well and easily a student learns a foreign language is to check how much progress is made during a course of study, and such progress can be quantified either by the teacher's subjective evaluation or by the difference in test scores obtained before and after the study period.

Another way to prove that GTT is a valid test is by "concurrent validity". This is the relationship between performance on GTT and actual language proficiency at one particular time. If it is statistically shown that the student whose scores are high on GTT is actually high in the skills of the language he is learning, there is good reason to believe that he would likely be able to succeed when he starts studying a new language.

1-a. Criterion Measures

GTT scores were compared with the actual performance in the target language. Standardized language proficiency tests, teachers' ratings, or any other devices used to measure the success in foreign language learning are called "criterion measures" in the project.

Since we knew of no language tests available that could be used as strong criterion measures applicable to all the different study groups, we prepared different proficiency tests for different age groups in consideration of what was taught and what skills were emphasized in the classroom training.

Table 4 lists these tests which were specifically prepared for validating GTT. These Standardized Proficiency Tests (SPT) were necessarily supplemented by classroom teachers' evaluation of their students' language learning ability. This teacher's rating (TR) was based on a 5-point scale, with the best learner given a rating of 5, the average learner 3, and the worst learner 1.

As mentioned above, one popular method of measuring language progress is to see the difference in equivalent test scores before and after training. Under such circumstances, however, two conditions must be satisfied. One is that the tests be both valid and reliable. The other is that all the learners in the experimental group be engaged in study activities under approximately the same conditions, with the result that the progress made during the course is primarily the result of the training. For example, the student who spends hardly more than 3 or 5 lesson hours a week in school is not comparable to the student who studies ten extra hours a week at home under the guidance of tutors. Unfortunately, both kinds of student are typical of some junior and senior high schools in Japan. Therefore, we had to conclude that such follow-up measurement of language progress, although ideal in theory, was almost meaningless in our research, except for intensive courses, where students spend about the same amount of time and energy studying and are just about equally motivated.

Due to school policy, some experimental groups did not employ our SPT, but used their own achievement tests instead. These various tests were called Anonymous Tests (AT) and were used by some groups in addition to SPT.

1-b. Superiority of Multi-criterion Measures

We found that the more criterion measures used, the higher the correlation coefficients r between them and GTT were. Table 5 shows how r changes as the number of measures increased with four experimental groups. This was certainly an encouraging discovery, because it indicated to us that the statistical validity of GTT would only improve if the criterion measures were strengthened.

1-c. Sample Population for the Pretest

The sample population which the pretest form of GTT was administered to was carefully planned so that it would best represent the national population of foreign language learners in Japan. Such factors as the type of school (public or private, urban or rural), the age and sex, the target language, and the type of course (intensive or nonintensive) were taken into consideration. Table 6 gives a breakdown of the sample population. With the exception of the YMCA and those schools which gave us permission to publish their names, the names of the schools have been withheld.

Table 7 shows validity coefficients r of GTT. As the criterion measure was different from group to group, r was necessarily calculated separately.

While validity coefficients r of the junior high groups were generally high, those of the senior high groups turned out to be consistently low. Especially School F produced almost zero correlation. There are two reasons for this. One is the insufficiency of criterion measures. No TR was furnished from Schools F and G. Secondly, due to the stiff university entrance examinations, some high school students spent more time studying at home than others. This made it extremely difficult for us to determine just how much of their learning was due to school training. In order words, those students achieved their language level at the time of the test from factors other than aptitude to a much greater degree than other experimental groups.

Such language groups as Italian and Thai at School K had too small a sample population to place much statistical value on the test validity.

In the experimental groups of adult learners, the r figures turned out reasonably high. Particularly the intensive courses of English produced high validity coefficients, considered satisfactory for this type of test.

Table 8 reports our follow-up studies of the 3rd year students of School A. We tried to find out the correlation between the performance on GTT given at the start of the school year and the English grade on the report cards issued at the end of the school year. Fifty-six percent of the boys who scored 128 or more on GTT ($\bar{x} + 1\sigma$) made A or B at the end of the year. One hundred percent of the girls whose scores were 131 or higher got A or B, and conversely, 88 percent of the girls who scored 88 or below received neither A nor B.

Table 9 shows the coefficient correlation between the total GTT score and the criterion measure and between each of the three areas of GTT and the criterion measure. From the figures we can see that those three areas were related to the language learning ability to a similar degree, with the area of memorization being slightly more pertinent than the others.

2. Reliability

We adopted two different methods to check the reliability of GTT. One was the "retest procedure", by which we figured the correlaion between the results of the same test administered to the same group on two different occasions. The other was the "split half method", by which we checked if the items were well-balanced. GTT was retested on a group of 61 girl students enrolled in a one-year course of secretarial training at the Osaka YMCA College. The test was given at an interval of six months, and the reliability coefficients were calculated by the Spearman-Brown Formula (Table 10).

As the scores obtained at the second administration were consistently higher than on the first test, we calculated the raw score increases in terms of percentage (Table 10). It is generally true that an increase in raw scores on the retest is due to the practice effect, but we doubt that this has played much role in this experiment because of the long interval between the tests. If then, the raw score increase is not attributed to the practice effect, the only explanation would be the possibility of the aptitude component skills having been improved as a result of language training. Needless to say, more careful investigation is needed to conclude whether or not "language aptitude fluctuates".

Next, in order to see the internal consistency of GTT, we tried to find out how much agreement existed between the groups of scores obtained from even numbered items and odd numbered items. For this purpose we used a population of 137 learners chosen at random from all the different levels (Table 10). We also studied the inter-part correlation of the three areas of GTT to find out what relationship existed between and among them. For example, whether or not a learner who is good at memorizing is also sensitive to sounds, and if so, then how much (Table 11).

Since these three areas were designed to measure separate qualities of aptitude, high agreement was not expected, for if the three areas correlated highly with one another, any one of them could suffice as a complete test.

IV. Reading GTT Scores

Table 12 shows how the approximately 3,000 Japanese learners performed on GTT and Tables 13 and 14 give the percentile rating of the total scores for the eight classified groups.

What, then, is the standard in language learning aptitude? What scores should be considered high or low? Which score draws the line between nonachievers and achievers?

GTT can enable us to talk about someone's aptitude only in comparison with other learners. It cannot tell us, however, who has no aptitude to learn a foreign language, since the test was not validated on clinical evidence as such.

For interpreting GTT scores, the following evaluation of foreign language aptitude on a 5-point scale based on T scores is suggested.

Evaluation	T Score
1 -Especially low aptitude	30 and below
2 -Relatively low aptitude	31 - 40
3 -Average aptitude	41 - 60
4 -Relatively high aptitude	61 - 70
5 -Especially high aptitude	71 and above

V. Conclusion

Like any other good test, a language aptitude test must be pretested on a wide population to weed out weak items, and must be rewritten and retested until sufficient reliability and validity coefficients are secured. Therefore, the finished test must provide enough statistical data to prove how consistently and at the same time how accurately it measures the skills intended to be measured. GTT, in this respect, seems to satisfy the minimum statistical requirements. However, throughout the research, we have been disturbed by an increasing awareness of some of the problems and limitations that language aptitude tests are subject to.

The first problem is the poor definition of language proficiency. We must remember that the ability to handle a language is enormously complex. The manipulation of language machinery, which deals with hundreds of mechanical skills, is only a part of the total competence in a language. In addition, the language user must be equipped with the ability to manipulate concepts, logic, and even kinesic factors which carry meanings, such as facial expressions and gestures. When this fact is taken into consideration, we realize that the goal of language instruction has been far too inadequately defined. Consequently, GTT seems to have failed to take a serious look at what is meant by "success in foreign language learning".

If the foreign language aptitude test views language fluency in terms of hearing and speaking, as well as reading and writing, and if such a test is tried out in classes where the teaching method and testing emphasize only the grammar and reading skills, for example, the test will obviously be based on fallacious validity, and therefore the actual predictive power of such a test might be extremely poor, despite its high statistical validity.

The second pertinent problem in construction a foreign language aptitude test is the serious lack of strong criterion tests. The validity of a foreign language aptitude test is proven only by correlating the aptitude test scores with actual learning taken place during a period of training. Therefore, in order for the correla-

tion coefficient of the aptitude test on the one hand and the amount of learning (or student's performance level in the target language) on the other to be high, the criterion tests themselves must be valid and reliable.

Unfortunately, foreign language proficiency testing is still at an immature stage of development today. Most available measures have emphasized a command of the written language, and relatively little effort has been made to measure the speaking ability. Unless we can obtain good testing instruments by which any phase of language competence can be rightly measured and evaluated, foreign language aptitude tests will remain seriously restricted by their limitations.

Thirdly, although GTT claims to measure foreign language aptitude, it has never been tested enough on foreign languages other than English. In Japan, it is impossible to include in the sample population groups of learners studying other foreign languages, especially at the junior and senior high age levels. This weakness may be neutralized, however, by the assumption that languages are universal to the extent that the three areas of memorization, grammar, and sounds are involved in learning any one language.

Lastly, foreign language teachers must not forget that language aptitude, though it does exist, does not play (and perhaps should not play) a major role in foreign language education. Even with high aptitude, no student will learn a language in the absence of proper motivation and interest. Conversely, a student with low aptitude will be able to attain an average level of expected proficiency if he is given proper instruction and ample learning opportunity.

We hope that GTT and other similar tests will be positively used at schools, business firms, and other agencies to find out more about the language learners and their learning capacities. However, GTT should be used with some reservations, because it does not measure foreign language aptitude with 100% accuracy. Such a test should not deprive low-aptitude students of the opportunity to learn. Foreign language teachers should not give up on those students. Instead, teachers, together with school administrators, should endeavor to provide those students with a better program. Better teachers, better motivation, and more time for learning can compensate for the learner's low aptitude.

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Table 1.

Possible Factors Contributing to Language Learning Ability

		1. highly	2. a little	3. not	4. * (1-3)
1.	ability to memorize figures	76	91	39	37
(2)	memory retention power	156	49	8	148
3.	singing ability	46	99	65	
(4)	mimicking ability	108	88	16	92
5.	rich Japanese vocabulary	98	82	28	70
6.	ability to speak Japanese well	82	88	36	46
7.	cheerful personality	83	80	49	34
(8)	high I.Q.	108	88	13	95
(9)	imagination	110	77	19	91
(10)	fondness for foreign languages	188	25	0	188
11.	fondness for music	52	92	64	
(12)	reasoning ability	113	75	21	92
13.	sociability	86	81	42	44
14.	good grades in school	80	106	21	59
15.	physcial coordination	21	71	117	
16.	outgoing personality	86	84	38	51
17.	argumentative personality	39	91	81	
18.	creativity	81	98	31	50
(19)	sensitivity to sounds	159	46	8	151
20.	ability to solve puzzles	25	84	99	
(21)	exposure to foreign cultures	117	75	18	99
(22)	mental concentration ability	157	51	4	153
23.	fondness for reading	72	103	35	37
(24)	patience	149	57	7	142
25.	logic	64	112	34	30
26.	fondness for Japanese composition	49	99	62	
27.	ability to see cause and effect	69	100	40	29
28.	rapid speech	28	63	119	
29.	ability to do algebra	13	67	127	
30.	carefree personality	49	88	73	

Table 2.

Results of Initial Administration of Pre-pretest

Group	N		Part 1 (50)	Part 2 (20)	Part 3 (25)	Part 4 (25)	Part 5 (25)	Total (145)
Secretarial	25	M	31.44	10.52	23.80	18.76	14.80	98.92
		SD	7.02	2.70	2.04	1.43	4.59	10.26
Intensive	46	M	26.17	8.64	22.57	12.8	13.15	89.24
		SD	8.30	2.78	2.31	1.45	5.19	15.32
Advanced Conv.	43	M	29.16	9.72	22.37	17.47	15.56	92.74
		SD	8.38	1.10	2.67	2.53	5.07	16.15
Basic Conversation	58	M	27.21	8.48	21.76	17.79	12.53	87.79
		SD	8.23	2.30	2.61	1.76	5.12	14.59
Junior High	71	M	23.63	8.21	20.66	17.18	11.62	81.42
		SD	7.05	2.06	3.92	2.35	3.94	12.98
Grade 6	47	M	18.40	5.62	18.81	16.87	7.70	67.79
		SD	4.35	1.87	3.20	2.15	2.84	8.32
Total Population	290	M	25.40	8.30	22.66	17.69	12.10	84.99
		SD	8.35	3.07	3.30	2.11	4.97	16.20

M = Mean SD = Standard Deviation

Table 3.

Item Analysis

Part	Number of Items	Acceptable*	Average Difficulty of Acceptable Items
1	50	.48	.48
2	20	.15	.50
3	25	.10	.24
3'	15	.15	.27
4	25	.05	.24
4'	15	.15	.51
5	25	.25	.49

*Validity above .15

3' & 4' = revision

Table 4.

Standardized Proficiency Tests (SPT) as Criterion Measures

Group	Content of Test
Jr. High, 2nd year	Grammar, Hearing, Composition
Jr. High, 3rd year	Grammar, Hearing, Composition
Sr. High, 2nd year	Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary, Composition
Sr. High, 3rd year	Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary, Composition
Adult Learners	Grammar, Vocabulary, Hearing

Table 5.

Affects of the Number of Measures on GTT Validity

Group	N	1 Measure	2 Measures	3 Measures
Jr. High, 2nd year	131	.40 (SPT)	.46 (SPT, TR)	.54 (SPT, TR, AT)
Jr. High, 3rd year	176	.50 (SPT)	.49 (SPT, TR)	.51 (SPT, TR, AT)
Conversation Course	91	.25 (TR)	.42 (TR, AT)	.60 (TR, AT, AT)
Intensive Course	172	.40 (SPT)	.43 (SPT, TR)	.62 (SPT, TR, AT)

Table 6.

Sample Population of Pre-test

1. Jr. High Schools, (2nd & 3rd year)		1,265
School A	Public University, Osaka City	256
School B	Private University, Osaka City	241
School C	Municipal, Osaka Prefecture	207
School D	Municipal, Chiba Prefecture	211
School E	Public University, Kyoto Prefecture	350
2. Sr. High Schools (2nd & 3rd year)		711
School F	Prefectural High, Osaka City	184
School G	Municipal High, Osaka City (boys only)	188
School H	Prefectural High, Shiga Prefecture	271
School L	YMCA College Prep School, Osaka City (1st & 2nd yr)	68

3. Universities (Freshmen & Sophomores)		454
School I	Private Univ. Spanish Course, Kyoto City	61
School K	Public Univ. (Thai, Italian, Chinese, German Osaka City	115
School J	Private Jr. College, English, Osaka City (women)	217
School M	YMCA College, Secretarial Course, Osaka (women)	61
4. Adult Learners		517
School N	YMCA English Conversation Course, Osaka City	91
School O	YMCA English Conversation Course, Osaka City	91
School P	YMCA English Conversation Course, Tokyo	182
School Q	ELEC, English Intensive Course, Tokyo	91
School R	YMCA English Intensive Course, Osaka	72

Table 7.

Validity Coefficients r

	School	Grade	Sex	N	Criterion Measure	r	M	σ
Jr. High	A	2	M	72	SPT, AT, TR	.57	93.4	18.78
			F	59		.53	101.3	16.56
				131		.54	97.0	18.18
		3	M	69	SPT, AT, TR	.34	108.9	19.28
			F	56		.60	110.0	21.31
				125		.45	109.4	20.44
	B	2	M	109	SPT, TR	.44	58.77	17.47
			F	11		.22	80.63	18.52
				120		.48	60.78	18.60
		3	M	108	SPT	.48	63.08	21.94
			F	13		.61	86.15	19.19
				121		.57	65.16	20.44
	C	2	M	22	SPT, AT	.70	69.86	19.76
			F	23		.62	72.52	15.45
				45		.67	71.22	17.53
		3	M	83	SPT, AT	.72	73.74	22.60
			F	79		.57	77.40	22.30
				162		.64	75.53	22.46
	D	2	M	40	SPT, TR	.59	63.37	16.61
			F	39		.61	78.25	21.82
				79		.64	70.72	20.64
		3	M	69	SPT, TR	.55	72.10	20.79
			F	63		.64	79.80	23.13
				132		.64	75.96	22.09
	E	2	M	88	SPT, TR, AT	.38	83.28	15.93
			F	86		.52	86.57	16.73
				174		.45	84.90	16.38
		3	M	87	SPT, TR, AT	.60	92.93	19.60
			F	89		.45	100.49	20.44
				176		.51	96.40	20.40
Sr. High	F	2	M	57	AT	.29	122.86	21.42
			F	29		.22	130.17	21.44
				86		.10	125.30	21.60
		3	M	77	AT	.22	128.80	20.16
			F	16		.05	131.92	19.59
				93		.15	129.60	20.00
	G	2	M	46	SPT, AT	.12	118.00	19.60
		3	M	42	SPT, AT	.25	110.30	21.20

Table 7 (cont.)

Sr. High (cont.)

School	Grade	Sex	N	Criterion Measure	r	M	σ
H	2	M	63	SPT, TR	.24	78.75	25.01
		F	71		.48	87.50	19.40
			134		.31	93.90	20.30
	3	M	76	SPT, TR	.21	86.32	18.29
		F	61		.39	89.25	17.14
			137		.28	87.70	17.80
L	1 & 2	M	58	AT, AT, AT	.27	102.64	17.24
		F	10		.50	127.90	13.41
			68		.36	106.35	18.93

Univ.

School	Lang.	Sex	N	Criterion Measure	r	M	σ
I	Spanish	M	39	TR, AT	.10	93.79	21.18
		F	22		.11	119.45	22.09
			61		.29	103.05	24.68
J	English	F	136	SPT	.30	109.35	21.09
		F	81		.38	104.35	21.66
			217		.34	107.48	21.39
K	Thai		22	TR	.42	112.82	19.75
	Italian		9	AT	.31	131.11	18.35
			9		.44	124.67	22.61
	Chinese	M	29	TR	.26	117.14	17.26
		F	13		.19	132.54	15.84
			42		.27	121.90	18.13
	German	M	23	TR	.56	119.30	23.68
		F	10		.69	124.70	28.79
			33		.58	120.94	25.00

Adults

School	Course	Sex	N	Criterion Measure	r	M	σ
N	Night	M	33	TR, AT, AT	.12	102.67	22.67
		F	58		.62	106.19	22.59
			91		.60	104.91	22.55
O	Night	M	28	SPT	.62	104.46	24.95
		F	53		.33	110.43	20.87
			81		.41	108.37	22.39
P	Night	F	182	AT	.32	106.60	19.55
Q	Intens.	M	45	AT, AT	.57	96.44	26.08
		F	46		.54	100.13	22.28
			91		.53	98.31	29.19
R	Intens.	M	35	SPT, TR, AT	.58	113.11	25.02
		F	37		.65	119.85	23.44
			72		.62	116.52	24.52

Table 8

Correlation of GTT and English Grades on Report Cards

GTT Score	Sex	Grade A or B	Grade C	Grade D or F
Over 128 (T Score 60)	M	56%	33%	11%
	F	100%	0%	0%
90 - 127	M	46%	35%	19%
	F	49%	36%	15%
Below 89 (T Score 40)	M	0%	29%	71%
	F	0%	43%	57%

Table 9

r of Three Areas of GTT and Criterion Measure

School C, 3rd year	
Area I & SPT	r = .69
Area II & SPT	r = .66
Area III & SPT	r = .56
Total Score & SPT	r = .64

Table 10.

Reliability Coefficients of GTT

Area	Retest Procedure N = 61	Raw Score Increase	Split Half Method N = 137
I	r = .76	14.9%	r = .89
II	r = .64	8.2%	r = .47
III	r = .70	9.7%	r = .68
Total	r = .75	10.9%	r = .91

Table 11.

Inter-part Correlation

Jr. High 3rd year
N = 162

	I	II	III
I			
II	.383		
III	445	398	

Table 12.

Mean (M) and Standard Deviation ( ) for 12 Groups

Level	Yr	Sex	I		II		III		Total	
			M	σ	M	σ	M	σ	M	σ
Jr. High	2	M	28.23	9.34	24.78	10.46	23.28	9.70	76.29	23.79
		F	32.02	9.45	25.27	9.67	29.30	8.24	86.59	19.88
	3	M	29.85	10.47	25.71	11.54	25.53	10.46	81.09	27.88
		F	35.75	11.80	25.84	9.99	28.25	10.05	89.85	25.54
Sr. High	2	M	40.96	14.24	36.18	11.52	30.24	9.54	107.38	28.13
		F	37.97	13.96	33.21	10.13	29.00	9.63	99.87	27.85
	3	M	38.43	12.87	35.71	11.32	33.06	9.85	107.20	26.98
		F	39.87	12.52	32.46	13.42	29.49	10.23	101.94	26.72
College		M	40.55	14.07	36.24	11.64	31.22	7.69	108.01	24.32
		F	45.64	12.53	33.82	10.21	30.27	8.73	109.73	22.40
Adults		M	37.83	9.49	33.45	11.37	29.70	9.25	100.99	23.71
		F	44.90	7.88	32.52	9.89	33.98	7.77	109.78	20.85

Table 13.

Percentile

Percentile	Junior High		Senior High		Percentile
	M	F	M	F	
99	138 +	152 +	164 +	167 +	99
97	123 - 137	137 - 151	157 - 163	153 - 166	97
95	119 - 122	130 - 136	149 - 156	150 - 152	95
90	111 - 118	119 - 129	141 - 148	141 - 149	90
85	105 - 110	114 - 118	135 - 140	136 - 140	85
80	99 - 104	109 - 113	131 - 134	133 - 135	80
75	95 - 98	105 - 108	126 - 130	124 - 132	75
70	91 - 94	100 - 104	121 - 125	118 - 123	70
65	88 - 90	97 - 99	118 - 120	113 - 117	65
60	84 - 87	94 - 96	114 - 117	107 - 112	60
55	80 - 83	92 - 93	111 - 113	101 - 106	55
50	77 - 79	90 - 91	108 - 110	96 - 100	50
45	74 - 76	87 - 89	105 - 107	92 - 95	45
40	70 - 73	84 - 86	101 - 104	88 - 91	40
35	67 - 69	81 - 83	97 - 100	87	35
30	63 - 66	78 - 80	94 - 96	85 - 86	30
25	59 - 62	75 - 77	90 - 93	83 - 84	25
20	56 - 58	71 - 74	86 - 89	81 - 82	20
15	52 - 55	66 - 70	81 - 85	77 - 80	15
10	47 - 51	62 - 65	75 - 80	70 - 76	10
5	40 - 46	54 - 61	67 - 74	64 - 69	5
3	36 - 39	48 - 53	59 - 66	58 - 63	3
1	0 - 35	0 - 47	0 - 58	0 - 57	1

Table 14

Percentile

	College		Adults		Percentile
	M	F	M	F	
99	147 +	159 +	155 +	154 +	99
97	148 - 156	151 - 158	141 - 154	147 - 153	97
95	146 - 147	146 - 150	137 - 140	143 - 146	95
90	138 - 145	141 - 145	134 - 135	136 - 142	90
85	134 - 137	135 - 140	131 - 133	131 - 135	85
80	127 - 133	131 - 134	125 - 130	126 - 130	80
75	125 - 126	126 - 130	121 - 124	123 - 125	75
70	120 - 124	122 - 125	114 - 120	119 - 122	70
65	119	120 - 121	111 - 113	116 - 118	65
60	117 - 118	116 - 119	109 - 110	113 - 115	60
55	114 - 116	113 - 115	106 - 108	111 - 112	55
50	110 - 113	110 - 112	103 - 105	108 - 110	50
45	107 - 109	108 - 109	101 - 102	106 - 107	45
40	104 - 106	105 - 107	92 - 100	103 - 105	40
35	99 - 103	103 - 104	88 - 91	100 - 102	35
30	97 - 98	98 - 102	86 - 87	97 - 99	30
25	91 - 96	93 - 97	81 - 85	93 - 96	25
20	85 - 90	89 - 92	78 - 80	89 - 92	20
15	78 - 84	86 - 88	75 - 77	85 - 88	15
10	75 - 77	81 - 85	70 - 74	79 - 84	10
5	67 - 74	71 - 80	63 - 69	70 - 78	5
3	58 - 66	67 - 70	59 - 62	65 - 69	3
1	0 - 57	0 - 66	0 - 58	0 - 64	1

Table 15.

GTT Profile (Example)

Name Ken Murakami		Age 39	(M) F		Group Adult
	Raw Score	M	σ	T Score	Evaluation*
I. Memorization	46	37.83	9.49	59	1 2 (3) 4 5
II. Grammar Cognition	54	33.45	11.39	68	1 2 3 (4) 5
III. Phonic Sensitivity	18	29.70	9.25	37	1 (2) 3 4 5
Total	118	100.99	23.71	59	1 2 (3) 4 5

* 1 - Significantly Low
2 - Relatively Low
3 - Average
4 - Relatively High
5 - Significantly High

T Score ≤ 30
T Score 31 - 40
T Score 41 - 60
T Score 61 - 70
T Score ≥ 71

Kalevi Vainioranta & David Bullivant

Group Working in the Language Classroom

A report on an experimental system

Introduction

It is well known in Finland that those studying languages only open their mouths to speak when "ordered" to do so by the teacher. This is an over-simplification, but those teaching are well aware of this syndrome. Indeed, it must have come about in the first place because of teachers. However, it is not our intention to present a reason why but to present a system of overcoming this problem so that pupils studying languages can produce more sounds per classroom lesson. Various systems have been suggested in the past: chorus work, answering questions "round the room" etc. We were more concerned with providing all the pupils with as much opportunity as possible to actually speak, not only to the teacher but also to each other in a controlled way with as much variety as possible. The old idea that 25 pupils in a class in a lesson of fifty minutes can only do 2 minutes work each was ripe for investigating, and discarding once and for all. Needless to say, the following points can be applied to any subject by the simple deletion of the word "language" and the substitution of any other subject being taught, but for our purposes we will use the word "language".

First principles

Ideally there should be interplay, not only between the teacher and his wards, but also between members of the pupil group and, more importantly, between the pupils as a group and the teacher, and individual pupils and the teacher. The first principle concerns communication.

To be able to communicate people have to have the right atmosphere and the means of communicating. In the classroom the means is the language being taught - the atmosphere has to be created. Is it easy for a private soldier to communicate with an officer when the latter is entrenched behind his desk in the purpose-built perfect defensive position it is? Can a very junior executive communicate with the "big white chief" when the latter is not only hidden behind his desk but is also raised up on a dais to further exaggerate his higher position? In the bath there is little to choose between one man and another but put one behind a desk and immediately there is a striking difference. It is worth noting that in all the illustrations presently available purporting

to show how Jesus Christ went about His ministry He is never shown dispensing His Gospel from behind a desk - He went out among the people and shared His life with them. He was very successful in His teaching as the number of Christians in the world today testifies.

In any discussion where people are sitting round a table the whole truth is not easily seen: it is easy to hold back or "hide". In the "open" situation much more freedom of expression results. If the traditional Finnish coffee table is removed from one's living room much better relationships develop between friends - open friendship.

To contact people is the main aim of language teaching. Surely it is a good thing to contact pupils in such a way that they can respond too. It is also necessary, at least in Finland, to create a responsive atmosphere so that free communication can develop, without fear or favour.

It has been found that the development of a response cycle helps communication in the classroom with natural overspill to contact outside the classroom. Fig. 1 shows a response cycle as herein advocated.

The second principle concerns attitude. It is assumed that the pupils are there to learn, voluntarily, compulsorily or whatever. Naturally each reason why they come to learn a second language presents its own special approach problems but these are beyond the scope of the present presentation. The teacher has to engender a "response" attitude in the pupil so that the latter is motivated. To encourage this the teacher must adopt a positive attitude to his work, lesson presentation and to his pupils. The pupils have to be placed in a positive position: there must be a positive atmosphere. The pupil is usually positive - he comes to the lesson, with his books, often with his homework and exercises done, thirsting for that something only the teacher can provide. What is that something? The teacher has a positive attitude - salary, there with his books, lesson prepared, ready to impart knowledge. So often this proves to be insufficient. There is a short circuit somewhere in the loom: the atmosphere becomes less positive. A response attitude can be created with good course material, well presented with pupil involvement so that the two positive attitudes come together leading to ultimate success.

With reference to Fig. 1, it will be seen that the teacher can offer his material to the pupils and they can respond, but note how the response is passed on to other pupils who respond to the teacher. The rest of the cycle will be explained when we deal with classroom atmosphere.

The atmosphere created by the classroom is yet another factor

over which the teacher has control and this can lead to the response cycle becoming complete, the positive building of a working attitude and the general success, or otherwise, of a presentation. A look first at the traditional layout, Fig. ii. In this it can be seen that the teacher is in the traditionally safe place behind the desk, often slightly elevated "so that everyone can see what's going on". The information flow is one way - from the teacher to the pupils. There is no contact, no response except on an individual basis of teacher to pupil, pupil to teacher - with luck! There is no interplay, no response cycle. However, this layout certainly still has its uses in today's language teaching scene but should be reserved for the "lecture" situation - it is hardly a teaching situation.

A development of this is shown in Fig. iii. The "horse shoe" or "open U" system has clear advantages over that of Fig. ii. However, the teacher is still up there in his safe place, with his rear covered by the blackboard, overhead projection screen etc. as in the traditional situation. Information flow is mainly one way, but the pupils have more chance to contact each other. A teacher can ask a pupil to ask a question of another pupil, freely or under duress. Exercises, drills, question/answers can be "passed round the room". The response cycle is incomplete.

By bringing the arms of Fig. iii together a better situation is arrived at, as set out in Fig. iv. The teacher is still up there but the pupils are physically closer not only to the teacher, but to each other. They can almost touch each other, unlike the members of the board who are separated by acres of oak. But this is still mainly a lecturing position in which the flow is one way. The one advantage is that those near the teacher can reach him: contact him. Those pupils at the far end of the table layout are well and truly cut off from the font, but clearly there is better response between pupils. Note the changes rendered in Fig. v. The teacher's desk has been moved from the head of the table position: instead it is isolated, close to the visual effects section of the room. An even bigger change is the removal of a fixed teacher.

There are many teachers who habitually roam about a classroom: nothing new in that idea. But the teacher in Fig. v is able to establish contact with each member of the group and is better able to create the complete response cycle. Information, in the form of a teaching point (whatever the subject being taught) can be given out from the teacher's desk with suitable use made of the visual aids to hand; thus all attention is focused on the one point. The teaching point can then be discussed among the pupils with the teacher coming in at different places within the group to sort out any individual problems which may arise. The

A suggested "Response Cycle"

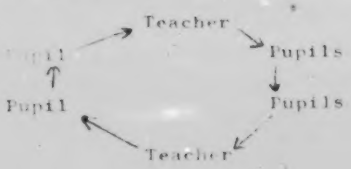

Fig. i

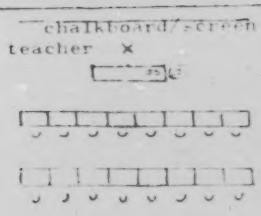

Fig. ii

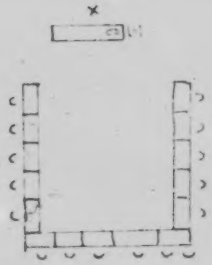

Fig. iii

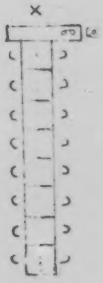

Fig. iv

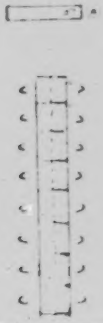

Fig. v

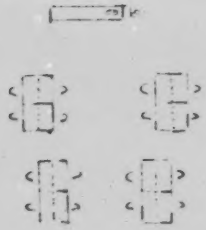

Fig. vi

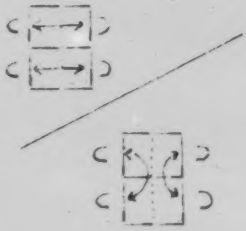

Fig. vii

A right handed teacher would benefit from having the aids on the right

pupils can be given roles to play in a question/answer situation, dialog, exercises (useful for checking homework) and one hundred and one other things. The cycle becomes complete - the teacher is part of the activity. The noise should be wonderfully deafening as all the pupils will be responding in pairs together at the same time. In the perfect situation each pupil in a fifty minute lesson should have fifty minutes of speaking! But, there is still a further development which has been found to be the best possible and the most useful to date.

In Fig. vi the pupils sit in groups of four and are separated from each other so that the cruising teacher can negotiate the thus created divisions. In this layout the best use can be made of individual, small tables to allow for even greater flexibility. The layout is made in such a way that when "front work" is undertaken everyone can see the teacher and the chalkboards, projection screen etc.. The teacher presents the teaching point and then, when everyone has grasped it, the pupils are set to work in pairs. This is a development of Fig. v and so far this method has proved to be the most productive and the most useful as a teaching tool. The response cycle is complete.

The advantages of this system are clear. Pupils work together in pairs over a table so that they are not completely exposed but have physical contact. Pairs can, for variety, be made up from pupils sitting side by side, Fig. vii. Thus in one group of four there are four pairings possible so that pupils don't get bored with each other. The teacher will soon learn just who is good and who is not so good and can direct pairings accordingly: some situations demand better pupils sitting together, with the weaker ones in a sub-group, sometimes it is very useful to have them mixed up so that the better ones can assist the poorer ones. In the former situation the teacher can devote time in bringing on one or two slow learners while the better ones set their own pace working largely on their own but with the teacher there for reference. The response cycle leads to:

(a) pupils working together, helping each other
(b) pupils calling on the teacher more readily for assistance
(c) the narrowing of the old fashioned idea of "us" & "them"
(d) pupils being motivated to do their homework to keep the group working smoothly and steadily
(e) pupils doing much more to help themselves over problems, referring to text books, dictionaries etc. as the need arises
(f) pupils asking assistance from other pupils leading to discussion, with the teacher being called in for clarification
(g) pupils becoming demonstrative, talkative, active, motivated, interested in the language but not as a

subject, merely as the vehicle being used at the moment

and (h) pupils actually enjoy it.

This last point is often overlooked by teachers. If the pupils enjoy it, the enjoyment is mutual and only good can result from it. In this system the pupils are put into a learning situation which is unlike the previously popular teaching situation.

Every teaching point can be adapted to this system with a little ingenuity on the part of the teacher. The better language courses are already structured this way, whether by design or accident only the producer can explain. This system has been used at all levels, among mixed age groups with remarkable results.

Pupils subjected to this exposure have used the following expressions in reaction to the presentation:
'I like this - it's fast and keeps up your interest'
'I dare not miss a day - it's wonderful'
'I had no idea I could actually speak the language'
etc...

Discussion

The way the material is presented is important to get the best out of this system and it has been found that any method which involves the pupil is the best. There are, thankfully, no hard and fast rules about presentation. Experiment is still going on and when the "only" way is found it will be time to move on to other developments since the whole point of the exercise is to bring into play better communication between people. Particularly in language teaching, it has been found that far better use can be made of a "native born teacher" of the language being taught simply because the teacher is able to serve the group individually. Thus more pupils have more exposure to the teacher than before - the contrary is also true, the teacher is exposed more.

A typical lesson may progress as follows (basic language course): The teacher introduces the teaching point, explanation etc. of what the lesson is about. The teacher then illustrates the point of grammar (but this could equally well be an economic point of view, a technical problem in engineering, or whatever) using the chalkboard, overhead projector or other visual aid using colour. Colour helps the pupil to grasp the fact that the verb. for example, moves in making a question in English: colour helps to reinforce the point. The more sketches, diagrams etc. the teacher can show the better, in colour of course, and "clever" transparencies for projection also help, as do wall charts etc.. All these visual items focus attention on the point being presented - the pupils are arrested.

Colour television is far more interesting than black and white . . . .

The teacher then asks pairs of pupils to tell each other the same thing - they exchange the teaching point between themselves, using paper and pencil to illustrate a particular point. Roles are then reversed. The teacher is now free to deal with individual problems and it soon becomes apparent whether the original presentation by the teacher was satisfactory - beat that for instant feed-back! Right from the start the response cycle is in use. When everyone has exchanged information, a volunteer can be called for to give a presentation to the class and after it general discussion can take place. It has been found that classes volunteer en masse - even in Finland. All this takes but a few minutes but the teacher can be sure that everyone in the room has grasped the teaching point and that everyone is ready to put it into use.

Now the pairs start work on exercises, drills, dialogs etc. to develop the skill they have just explained to each other.

It is up to the teacher to keep a wary eye on the "pairing". In the case of an odd number the teacher must make up the numbers, perhaps working through the tasks with the best pupil quickly, then leaving that pupil to monitor one group while the teacher devotes his time to other groups. All work takes place at the same time - the noise is fearsome. Alternatively the teacher can concentrate individually on the less talented members of the group, bringing them up to the same level as the better ones. The system enjoys such flexibility that it is possible to do anything the teacher has in mind to try. The system produces speakers, not passive listeners.

In a dialog situation the problem is eased, because pairs can speak alternate parts, change roles, discuss the passage together, make notes etc. just as they feel inclined to. Pairs can and should be moved so that in time everyone knows everyone, friendships develop and communication, even in the first language, is established.

Naturally, the addition of a tape recorder can add a much needed respite from "work". A taped dialog or exercise can be used to give a "model" for the pupils to copy, but it has been found that pupils react better if they do the dialogs/exercises first, to get the feel of them, before they are exposed to the all too often disheartening "perfect model" from the tape. Confidence has to be built up.

In some situations it is better, in a question/answer exercise for example, to let A ask all the questions for B to answer rather than for A to ask B, who answers and then for B to ask A a question: one has to try every possible

way and only experience shows how to go about the presentation. It depends very much on the ability of the group and one soon gets the feel of a group using this system.

With the pupils working in small groups it is possible to have group working at different levels in the same classroom, each working from their own wall charts, or course books. The teacher's role is important and it has been found that the teacher has to do even more speaking during the lesson than in the layout described in Fig. ii.

When many pupils ask the same question it is a good time to bring the groups back to one class and concentrate on the general problem - this calls for a strong voiced teacher to make himself heard above the activity going on. When once the class is captive again, the teacher can deal with general points found lacking. The teacher learns what to pick out from each chapter this way, too.

The above system and methods of presentation have proved to be really useful, particularly as it has been possible to use a language laboratory as a supplementary aid, and back-up in the laboratory has been better dealt with by groups subjected to this method.

Future developments

It was recently suggested that the addition of "Heavy Rock" played at full volume in the classroom would result in even better response among the pupils. The addition of a throbbing beat would bring the level of concentration to an even higher pitch, and the teacher would, by simply switching off the background noise, have the groups back in his hand for a further session of "front work". Quite often pairs complain because of "splash" from each other, but with the addition of background noise at a high level "splash" would be eliminated: the coffee bar scene springs to mind, with two heads bent in earnest discussion on some knotty problem turning deaf ears to the noise about them. This ability for people to "switch off" could be further investigated by someone more qualified than the originators of this presentation. However, it is felt that teachers have to get away from the teaching of languages and more towards the use of a language as a tool of expression - the present system encourages this right from page one of the basic course book.

But it can also be used for other subjects - literature can be taught in the same way: anything can be adapted to this approach.

Pairs can be made to work together in the traditional lecture room as set out in Fig. ii by asking alternative rows of pupils to turn round and face the row behind them.

However, it is difficult for the teacher to be everywhere at once. Another point worth bearing in mind is that if lecture room A holds X pupils (Fig. ii) then the same number of pupils can be sat in the same room if it is laid out per Fig. vi, but there is more space created in Fig. vi, so the atmosphere is better.

Courses, commercially available, which adapt to this system are too numerous to mention, but one which is particularly well suited is the Penguin English course, "Success with English" and it was from this course that the present method was developed.

The authors would be very interested in hearing from other teachers who have experimented along these lines and would welcome questions from teachers prepared to subject themselves to this total exposure.

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Deutsch als Fremdsprache: objektivierte und standardisierte Prüfungen im Rahmen einer Grundstufe

Der zunehmende Anspruch auf praktisch verwertbare Kenntnisse in der deutschen Sprache, wie sie als Umgangssprache gesprochen wird, veranlasste vor einigen Jahren den Deutschen Volkshochschulverband ein inzwischen erfolgreich beendetes Unternehmen zu initiieren: das Zertifikatsprojekt Deutsch als Fremdsprache. In seinen Grundlagen und Lernanforderungen entspricht es den anderen Sprachenzertifikaten und bildet eine Stufe in einem Rahmenplan zum Gesamtbereich Deutsch als Fremdsprache.

Die Grundlagenarbeit wurde von einer Arbeitsgruppe geleistet, die sich aus Vertretern des Deutschen Volkshochschulverbandes, des Goethe-Instituts, des Instituts für deutsche Sprache Mannheim und der Universitäten Freiburg und Kiel zusammensetzte. Ebenfalls beteiligt war der Verband der Schweizerischen Volkshochschulen. Die Projektleitung hatte Prof. H. Steger.

Das Zertifikat kann sowohl von den in der BRD lebenden Ausländern als auch von Deutschlernenden in ihren Heimatländern (über die Goethe-Institute) erworben werden. Wortgut und Strukturenmaterial wurden dabei so ausgerichtet, dass die "möglichen Sprachgewohnheiten eines Sprechers, dessen Schulbildung dem deutschen Hauptschulabschluss verglichen werden kann",[1] Berücksichtigung fanden, und zwar unter Vergleich dieses Sprechers mit den Lebensbedingungen eines deutschen Stadtbewohners nach erfolgter sozialer Integration. Ein solcher Kommunikationsrahmen setzte bestimmte Situationen und Rollenverhalten voraus.

Im Lern- und Prüfungsziel wird kein berufsspezifischer Befähigungsnachweis angestrebt. Das Ziel 'Sprachpraxis' erforderte die rein sprachliche Ausrichtung. Landeskunde and Literatur sind nicht Prüfungsinhalte, wie etwa im Kleinen oder Grossen Sprachdiplom des Goethe-Instituts. Zu den Zielverstellungen des Zertifikats heisst es: "In der Prüfung erbringt der Kandidat den Nachweis, dass er den Grad an Fertigkeit im mündlichen und schriftlichen Gebrauch der erlernten Sprache erreicht hat, der es ihm ermöglicht, sich bei einem Aufenthalt in dem betreffenden Land in allen wichtigen Situationen sprachlich zu behaupten. ... Schliesslich soll er sich der wichtigen Kommunikationsmittel im Lande, vor allem also der Massenmedien (Zeitungen, Rundfunk, Fernsehen), zu seiner

[1] Zitat u.f. in: H. Steger/M. Keil, Wortliste für das VHS-Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache, Päd. Arbeitsstelle des DVV, Frankfurt 1971, S. 1

Orientierung verständig bedienen können."[1] Auf diese Forderung nach praktisch verwertbaren Kenntnissen in der Fremdsprache sind die Wort- und Strukturenliste abgestimmt. Ein Kurs, der zum Zertifikat führen soll, hat die Aufgabe, die vier sprachlichen Fertigkeiten unter Berücksichtigung des Vorrangs der gesprochenen Sprache angemessen zu trainieren:

1) Hörverständnis - das richtige Erfassen von Mitteilungen, Gesprächen und Dialogen, die in einem normalen Sprechtempo rollengerecht ablaufen.

2) Sprechfertigkeit - das rollengerechte Ausdrücken von im Alltagsleben vorkommenden Mitteilungen, und zwar sprachlich korrekt in sicher geführter Aussprache und Intonation.

3) Leseverständnis - das globale und detaillierte Verstehen von unbekannten, nicht fachspezifischen Texten.

4) Schriftlicher Ausdruck - die gelenkte Sprachproduktion im Feld der eingeübten Strukturen und des der Aufgabe angemessenen Wortgutes (z.B. Brief nach Vorgaben)

Für die im Prüfungsverfahren verwendeten T e s t s im Rahmen der geforderten objektivierten Leistungsmessung (Strukturen- und Wortmaterial verbindlich, gleichartige Testbedingungen, lernzielorientierter Unterricht) haben die folgenden Forderungen zu gelten:[2] "Geprüft wird, was für die Verständigung wichtig ist ... Die zu überprüfenden Wortmaterialien sind in Sinn- und Satzzusammenhänge gestellt ... Jede Einzelaufgabe ist so angelegt, dass es nur eine richtige Lösungsmöglichkeit gibt (Ausname: schriftlicher Ausdruck und Teile der mündlichen Prüfung) ...".

Die Prüfung gliedert sich in einen schriftlichen und einen mündlichen Teil. Schriftlich getestet werden: 1. Rechtschreibung (Lückendiktat, das über Tonträger vermittelt wird, Einzelsätze oder Ganztext mit ca 30 Aussparungen) - 2. Schriftlicher Ausdruck (Brief nach vorgegebenen Impulswörtern) - 3. Wortschatz und Strukturen (Lückentest, multiple-choice) - 4. Leseverständnis (Ganztext, sachlich orientiert, Global- und Detailfragen im multiple-choice-Verfahren) und Hörverständnis (Dialoge, Gespräche unter "Alltagsbedingungen", z.B. auf der Strasse mit Geräuschkulisse. In der Bewertung zum mündlichen Prüfungsteil gerechnet). In der mündlichen Prüfung

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[1] Das Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache, Hrsg. H. Steger, PAd. Arbeitsstelle des DVV, Frankfurt 1972, S. 7

[2] Vgl. dazu Anm. 1, hier: S. 9

wird die Sprechfertigkeit abgetestet, und zwar in einem "Gelenkten Gespräch" (verbindlicher Fragenkatalog) und in der Versprachlichung von "Alltagssituationen". Der Sprechanlass wird jeweils kurz vorgegeben: z.B. "Sie werden teletonisch angerufen, verstehen aber den Namen des Anrufers nicht. Wie fragen Sie?" (Wer ist am Apparat? Mit wem spreche ich? Wer ist dort, bitte?). Im Testteil "Gelenktes Gespräch" werden sowohl der Kandidat als auch der Prüfer "gelenkt" - die vorgegebenen Fragen dürfen nicht umgeformt und dadurch eventuell erleichtert werden. Stark reduziert wird dadurch die Möglichkeit, dass der Kandidat in schwer messbare Sprachfelder ausweicht. Ein detailliert ausgearbeiteter Kriterienkatalog unterstützt den Prüfer in seiner Beurteilung. Bewertet werden die formale Richtigkeit, die Ausdrucksfähigkeit, die Aussprache und das Verständnis im gesamten Themenkomplex. Ebenfalls einem festgelegten Bewertungsablauf sind die Reaktionen auf die 10 Kommunikationsanlässe unterworfen. Der Kandidat soll zeigen, dass er typische Sprechsituationen, wie sie sich im täglichen Leben ergeben, inhaltlich und sprachlich angemessen, evt. auch in kurzen feststehenden Aussagen, bewältigen kann.

Das VHS-Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache zeigt Anspruch und Grenzen von standardisierten Tests. Der Vorwurf, dass auch hier an einzelnen Stellen nur das abgetestet wird, was testbar ist und nicht was eigentlich getestet werden müsste, wird sich nicht ganz abweisen lassen. Trotzdem: alle nur schwer messbaren Überprüfungsmöglichkeiten (Übersetzung, Nachschrift, Nacherzählung u.a.) sind ausgeklammert worden; ausgegangen wird von definierten Lernzielen; die Lehrverfahren und Unterrichtsmaterialien sind auf die Prüfungsanforderungen hin ausgerichtet.

Die Entwicklungsarbeit für die Sprachenzertifikate durch den Deutschen Volkshochschulverband und andere wissenschaftliche und pädagogische Einrichtungen hat viele Impulse ausgestrahlt - auf den Fremdsprachenunterricht an den Schulen und in erwachsenenbildenden Institutionen, überall dorthin, wo Sprache zielorientiert und in zeitökonomisch vertretbaren Grenzen gelernt werden soll. Der Deutschunterricht als Fremdsprache kann auf ein modernes und ausbaufähiges Grundlagenmaterial zurückgreifen.

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Bilingualism in Wales

Wales is a country of just over 2 1/2 million people to the west of England. It was officially incorporated in England by an Act of Parliament which decreed in 1536 that "from henceforth no person or persons that use the Welsh language shall have or enjoy any manner of office or fees within this realm of England, Wales or other of the King's Dominion upon pain of forfeiting the same offices or fees, unless he or they sue and exercise the English language". At that time the Welsh people were virtually 100% monolingual Welsh in speech.

After this official union of Wales with England the English language became the only official language for all administrative and legal purposes throughout the principality. The aristocracy soon adopted the English language and sought English-medium education for their children and that often in England. As an English-medium system of education developed within Wales the English language also became the language of the middle classes. To acquire command of English was a status symbol, the first step towards climbing social and economic ladders. The bulk of the population, however, remained Welsh-speaking until the latter half of the nineteenth century with effective command of only one language - their own Welsh language.

Industrial development, well served by road and rail communications linking Wales with England, brought into the country groups of mono-lingual English-speakers from England and Ireland to settle in the eastern border counties and across the South Wales coalfield. The Education Act of 1870 established English-medium elementary education within reach of all children in Wales. There was no Welsh-medium education other than that provided by the Sunday schools and other educational activities associated with worshipping communities. A network of English-medium secondary schools was established by the Intermediate Education Act of 1889. University education was developed entirely through the medium of English during the same period. The motor car broke down the isolation of the Welsh valleys, villages and countryside from English influences and this was followed in due course by the mass media, initially entirely English in language and still very dominantly so.

By the beginning of the present century the future pattern of linguistic change in Wales was obvious. The language of the minority (English) was to become the language of the majority as the schools, supplemented by other agents,

presented the English language with varying degrees of success to all Welsh children. The schools made no attempt to present a knowledge of Welsh to the English-speaking minority. Bilingualism was a stage meant to last for no more than one or two generations. Mobility increased, particularly of the abler members of the valley and village communities. Inter-marriage between bilinguals and monolingual English-speakers promoted the decline of the use of Welsh even within the home domain. Such influences and social processes continued to promote the withdrawal of Welsh from social and domestic situations as well as from official situations, schools and colleges, with the result that only some 20% of the people of Wales, just over half a million, registered for Census purposes in 1971 as being able to speak Welsh.

By the beginning of the present century some leaders of Welsh opinion realised that the Welsh language was in danger and campaigned successfully for a place for it as a subject in the schools as it was commonly acknowledged to be the national language of Wales. During the first quarter of this century Welsh also came to be used as a medium of infant school education in areas that remained predominantly Welsh-speaking. The greater part of primary education, together with all secondary and college education, still continued to be through the medium of English and the Welsh language continued to retreat. Welsh was included as a subject in the curriculum of a majority of schools by the inter war period, presented at mother tongue level to its speakers and at second language level to children from English-speaking homes. In secondary schools Welsh was often offered as an alternative to a foreign language, and progress made, where it was a second language, was normally as unsatisfactory as the progress made in the foreign language taught, usually French. The English-speaking children of Wales reached school-leaving age without being able to communicate effectively in any language other than their mother tongue. Welsh-speaking pupils, as they had been taught other subjects, with the exception of Welsh, through the medium of English, became fluent bilinguals, retaining and developing command of their mother tongue and at the same time acquiring command of English mainly through school experience. English-speaking pupils who had been receiving one lesson of Welsh per day from the age of eight to school-leaving age were making no real progress towards bilingualism. The policy of one Welsh lesson per day was obviously failing to produce a bilingual nation. The percentage of pupils receiving Welsh at home from their parents as their first language continued to drop steadily.

Concern about the future of the language increased with the growth of awareness of nationality during the century and especially so in the post war period. The Central

Advisory Council for Education in Wales confirmed the widely held belief in bilingual education in a comprehensive report on The Place of Welsh and English in the Schools of Wales (1953, London H.M.S.O. pp. 111. This report contains much information that is valuable and relevant to the study of bilingual education in situations outside Wales.)

"It asks that the children of Wales and Monmouthshire should be taught both Welsh and English, due regard being paid to the abilities and aptitudes of these pupils and to the varied linguistic patterns in which they live."

It was obvious by the nineteen fifties that current policy and practice would have to be reviewed and changed drastically if any real progress was to be made towards giving the English-speaking children of Wales an education that was to convert them into effective bilinguals. Welsh-speaking pupils became bilingual under the influence of English-medium education, supported by the mass media and other environmental factors. English-speaking pupils, exposed to very little environmental pressure to learn Welsh, educated exclusively through the medium of English up to the age of eight, and there-after exposed at school to Welsh as a subject only and for only two or three hours per week, were making very little progress towards the generally accepted bilingual goal. When addressed in Welsh, after as many as eight years of receiving lessons regularly in the language, the overwhelming majority could not respond even at very simple conversational level. Results indicated a disastrously poor return for the effort, time and money expended on the teaching of Welsh as a second language at a time when the language appeared to be regaining some of its lost status in Welsh society and when Welsh-English bilingualism was becoming more and more of a social and economic asset at local and national level.

By today there has been a significant change. For the first time, since public opinion began to pay lip service to the restoration of the Welsh language almost a century ago, there is real evidence of progress towards the revival of competence in it in areas where it has long ceased to be a living community language. Many who are working in the general field of bilingual education in Wales now feel that effective Welsh-English bilingualism is within the grasp of an overwhelming majority of the children of Wales with very little additional effort if their parents wish them to be bilingual and the necessary facilities and teaching methods are offered to them. For the first time ever bilingual education is a practical proposition in Wales, irrespective of home language.

The main factors that have jointly brought about this change of outlook and restored faith in the practicability of bilingualism appear to be:

a) The success of the Welsh-medium kindergarten. Even into the late nineteen fifties it was commonly believed that the young child needs some years for the consolidation of the mother tongue without interference from a second language. The policy of "no second language Welsh teaching before eight" was based on this theory and was officially recommended in Wales throughout the first half of this century. During the past twenty years however, evidence has been forthcoming from the fields of neurology, psychology, sociology and linguistics to support the view that the sooner a child becomes bilingual the better, if coordinate bilingualism is the ultimate aim.

There are now some 200 Welsh-medium kindergartens in Wales. A majority of their pupils are from English-speaking homes. Young English-speaking monoglots enter the kindergarten at the age of 2 1/2-3 1/2 to receive all their kindergarten experience through Welsh and an overwhelming majority of those who receive a pleasant-activity type of second language immersion at this young age proceed with their education at primary school level from the age 4-5 level mainly through the medium of the Welsh language.

A bilingual education project sponsored by the Schools Council has been equally successful. Pupils are exposed to a programme of bilingual education from the time they are registered as primary school pupils at the age 4-5. They are given the usual primary school programme through the medium of English, which is usually their mother tongue, in the mornings and a similar programme, with variations where appropriate, through the medium of their second language, which is usually Welsh, during the afternoon, or vice-versa. Some 7,000 pupils are involved in this project at present. By the time they come to leave the primary school at the age of eleven, a majority of them will be well on the way to bilingualism and capable of receiving part of their secondary education through the medium of their second language. The "No second language before eight theory" appears to be about to be replaced by a widespread belief "If you are not well on the way towards bilingualism by the age of eight you will need to put a tremendous effort to get there, if, indeed, you ever will".

This Welsh experience, as readers of System will know, is well supplemented by smaller scale but better reported experiments in kindergarten linguistic immersion and early second language presentation in Canada and the United States.

b) The successful image of bilingual education. Bilingual primary education became widespread in the second quarter of the century but secondary education continued to be available only through the medium of English in all subjects, with the exception of Welsh and also Religious Knowledge in areas where Welsh is the main medium of religious services.

It is only during the last fifteen years that bilingual secondary education has become firmly established. There are now six bilingual secondary schools offering a bilingual education to some 5,000 pupils. Welsh is the official language of these schools. A group of subjects, usually including all Arts and Practical subjects, is taught through Welsh. Another group of subjects, mainly science subjects, is taught through English. In these schools both languages have a place on the curriculum as subjects on the timetable and both languages are also used as media, with the Welsh language inclined to be given slightly more of the school contact hours than the English language, which is dominant in the community outside the school and also the home language of a majority of the pupils. These schools are flourishing, as yet, only in the more anglicised parts of Wales, not in areas where Welsh is still the dominant community language.

Public opinion in Welsh-speaking areas has not called for bilingual education in the sense of dual-medium secondary education as yet, but there is evidence of growing interest in such a system and several local pressure groups are now campaigning for it.

In the past Welsh parents in general, whether they be Welsh-speaking or English-speaking, have feared that their children would have a lower degree of competence in English if too much school time was given to Welsh, but now that fear appears to be in the process of being undermined.

The results of several comparative studies of the attainments of bilingually educated pupils and pupils receiving English-medium education, equated in terms of social background, suggest that the bilingually educated are not inferior in attainment in general subjects nor even in mother tongue attainment: One such comparative study in Wales even suggests that bilingually educated English-speakers are liable to get slightly higher scores in English than monolingually educated English-speakers and also slightly higher scores in Welsh than pupils who have Welsh as a mother tongue but receive a traditional English-medium teaching in subjects other than Welsh. It appears, therefore, that it is now being established that nothing is lost by the average child as a result of being bilingually educated and that the only significant difference between the products of the two types of schools is that the one group is able to function educationally and socially through the medium of two languages while the other group is able to function through the medium of only one language.

c) Improvements in methods of teaching and examining

It should also be stated that there is evidence of better

results in recent years also from subject second-language teaching in schools where English is the only medium of teaching outside the Welsh lessons. This is likely to arise from three innovations that were introduced into the schools in the nineteen sixties (1) the introduction of the bilingual method of language teaching to supplement or replace the Direct Method. This method makes extensive stimulative use of the mother tongue in the early stages of second-language learning and fosters creation rather than imitation in pupil response.

This method developed by C. J. Dodson at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, is particularly valuable in a bilingual situation of the kind found in Wales, where it is important to have practice in keeping the two languages apart, as well as in developing skills in them. (For a full description of the method, see C. J. Dodson The Bilingual Method and Language Teaching, Pitman, London.)

(2) Changes in methods of testing and examining, especially the award of a growing percentage of marks for oral skills and listening comprehension at formal examinations at the ages of sixteen and eighteen.

(3) The development of planned courses, language laboratory programmes and audio-visual aids. A graded dictionary was produced with different printer's type indicating what words should be known by the ages of eleven, sixteen and eighteen. (For a full description see Towards Bilingualism Ed. Jac L. Williams, University of Wales Press, Cardiff.) The examining board now issues lists of sentence patterns and vocabulary to indicate exactly how much of the language is to be acquired for formal examinations at the age of sixteen. Teachers have guidelines that they did not have in the past.

4) More awareness of the existence of the language and more pride in it, arising from the growth of national consciousness.

In recent years the Welsh language has appeared for the first time ever, alongside English or underneath it, on scores of official forms, bills issued by nationalised industries, road signs, street names and public notices. It penetrates again into thousands of homes from which it disappeared a generation or two ago. This is a consequence of its being given a place on one radio service and two television services that cover almost the whole of the principality, offering a total of more than twenty hours per week of Welsh language listening and viewing. This factor has made the language a public language and, to a very considerable extent, an official language again, after four centuries of denial of any status outside the home and places of worship, almost a relegation to being a very private, almost secret language.

It is doubtful whether a bilingual system of education can produce a mass of bilingual citizens without strong environmental support and widespread motivation to become bilingual and to remain bilingual. In Wales conditions at present appear to be very favourable to the development of a nation that will be truly and effectively bilingual by the end of this century. The environmental factors appear to be becoming more forceful and Welsh educationists and teachers appear to be developing a productive and efficient pattern of bilingual education.

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Linguistic, Personal and Social Development of Immigrant Children

A study of about a hundred children aged from 3-8, followed during 3 years, before and after the school start. The study is fully reported - unfortunately in Swedish - in my work "Invandrarbarn i Norrköping", Lärarhögskolan i Linköping, 1974.

The background situation

Sweden has had quite a large influx of immigrants during the last few decades, especially during the '60s. The trend has, it seems, started to level out and perhaps turn downwards. This is due to the labour situation, especially in Finland, which is improving, and to the slow state of the market in Sweden during 1972-73, and it can quickly change.

The labour market is open between the Nordic countries (Norway, Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Sweden) and this has advantages as well as disadvantages. Up till now the main stream of the labour force has come from Finland to Sweden. The above mentioned improvement in Finland has made it slow down and many Finns return home. This has consequences for the school systems in both countries. I may mention here that there is hardly any similarity between the languages spoken in Finland and Sweden, whereas it is quite easy for Danes, Norwegians and Swedes to communicate. I have, as a matter of fact, not regarded children from these countries as immigrants, although they may have trouble with adjustment.

The situation is a bit different for other immigrants to Sweden. The slow market at the beginning of this decade was followed by other factors, such as increasing pressure from women and from elderly and disabled people for equal rights to work, and a certain amount of unemployment amongst academics which made young people choose other future prospects than studies. The results have been, I think I dare say, that it is at the moment quite difficult for people from countries outside the Nordic ones to get permission to work. It is, however, according to Swedish law allowed for those who work here to bring their families and, to some extent, other relatives. This has implications which I will discuss later.

I will give some statistics to make the present situation clear. The statistics come from the Statistical Yearbook of 1973.

Foreign citizens in some communes in Sweden divided into groups according to nationality. 1972

Commune	Total	% of popul.	Den-mark	Fin-land	Nor-way	Greece	Italy	Yugo-slavia	Othe
Stockholm	45104	6,4	3,4	39,1	4,8	7,1	3,6	6,1	36,0
Gothenburg	39220	8,6	7,5	39,0	10,5	2,3	2,0	15,2	23,5
Malmö	20136	7,1	14,7	12,3	3,7	2,5	2,7	29,0	35,1
Uppsala	5825	4,4	3,1	31,0	3,6	9,7	1,2	6,0	45,7
Norrköping	7326	6,1	4,4	54,7	3,2	12,0	1,3	8,4	16,0
Borås	10984	10,3	3,2	72,8	2,6	6,6	0,3	6,8	7,6
Eskilstuna	10130	11,0	3,2	78,0	3,0	1,6	1,0	5,5	7,7
Södertälje	10317	13,3	3,2	73,0	3,1	2,1	0,6	5,7	12,7

Foreign citizens in Norrköping according to nationality, sex and age

Country	Total	Men	Women	Age 0-14	Age 15-24	Age 25-34
Denmark	325	200	125	114	55	38
Finland	4010	2012	1998	1415	900	915
Greece	877	466	411	268	133	201
Italy	97	55	42	30	25	17
Yugoslavia	613	333	280	188	127	185
Norway	234	105	129	61	45	39
Poland	105	48	57	23	18	32
Switzerland	37	21	16	12	5	7
Soviet Union	48	34	14	9	5	5
Spain	30	16	14	10	3	9
Great Brit.	55	27	28	17	12	14
Czechosl.	121	63	58	29	17	32
Turkey	79	40	39	23	19	21
Germany	195	112	83	55	20	78
Hungary	105	68	37	23	8	54
U S A	66	32	34	13	11	11
Austria	37	27	10	12	2	17
Others	285	159	126	91	37	76
Total	7326	3823	3503	2393	1442	1752

The number and proportion of foreign citizens in Norrköping during the years 1960-1972

	1960[1]	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Number	1814	4539	5500	6934	7389	7326
Proportion	2,0	3,9	4,6	5,7	6,1	6,1

[1] There has been a change in the size of the commune since 1960, but this will probably have had only limited impact on these figures.

From the tables we find that a substantial percentage of the populations come from abroad, that Finland is the dominant home country, that the spread of countries is wide, that there are great differences between the bigger communes both in total number and in the nations represented.

We find that in Norrköping - and without doubt in other communes as well - the majority of the immigrants are young. About 33% are between the ages of 0-14 years, about 20% are teenagers or in their early twenties, and about 24% are in the most common childbearing ages.

This clearly points to the fact that we will continue to have children with linguistic problems for a long time yet, probably for the foreseeable future. We therefore must make haste to improve the education of this country in order to avoid lasting damage to these children. Sweden's official policy is to allow immigrants to bring dependents with them or raise families on equal terms with the Swedes. The inevitable consequence is that resources have to be allocated for the appropriate upbringing of the children.

My research is part of the trial activities carried out by the National Social Welfare Board in order to improve pre-schooling in Sweden. My most important suggestions are:

1) The training of bilingual teachers and assistants must be undertaken immediately and to an adequate extent.
2) These teachers and assistants must be given good working conditions, including job security and social security (which is not at all as automatic as one might expect).
3) The Swedish teachers and assistants must be given better training and re-training, in-service as well as recurrent.
4) The right of immigrant children to receive a good training in the language spoken in their home must be given to them without hesitation or delay, cost what it may. This does not mean that they can do without Swedish. They need both, but the home language is the most important if they are to be bilingual.
5) The immigrant children must also be given a good enough training to understand their parents' home country and its cultural, religious, historical, geographical, financial, political etc. matters. A lot of families return, and the children are at a loss, maybe for the second time in their lives, if they do not know enough.

Common questions

Now, one of the first objections that is usually raised is: "How is this to be carried out when we know that there are more than a hundred nations represented in Sweden, and that there are children from about sixty countries in Norrköping only?" The difficulties are tremendous, no doubt. As I see it, we must start off somewhere in any case. We cannot deny

the 1415 (59%) Finnish children in Norrköping their rights just because we may find it impossible to provide for perhaps 3 Lebanese, 2 Pakistani and 2 Chinese children.

Another question that inevitably occurs in Sweden is: "What will the reaction amongst Swedish parents be if the immigrant children are given greater facilities, such as priority in pre-school?"

The Swedish pre-school is at the moment not sufficient even for the six-year-olds in some places, and the authorities of communes are often a bit slow at increasing the number of places available. It is suggested that "children with special needs" be admitted to pre-school from 5, if possible from 4 years of age. Immigrant children need extra language training and are included among these. The problem will hopefully be solved by the pressure on communal administrators and politicians in connection with a law passed by the Riksdag (the Parliament) which states that the communes have to provide sufficient facilities for "common (not compulsory, though) pre-school". The question is a serious one, however, and needs great consideration. If Swedish parents feel that their children are done out of their rights there might appear hostility towards the immigrants, which might have bad effects on the children. Unfortunately, in my opinion, the above-mentioned law is not definite enough on this point about building out the pre-school, nor is it clear about the quality of pre-schooling.

The third question - somewhat mixed with a kind of nationalistic pride or maybe with what has been called "unilingual silliness" - is: "But if these people have come to live in Sweden, why can't they learn Swedish?" or, from educational staff: "Isn't it better for these children that they learn the language spoken by their playmates as soon as possible?"

Of course it would be best if all the immigrants knew Swedish. The very best for the world would be if we all had the same language. That would save us from a lot of misunderstanding. But this is a question of what is possible. It is not possible for anyone to switch over from one language to another directly. It may be possible for a few, talented individuals in extremely good situations to learn quickly. But the vast majority of the immigrants are neither very talented, nor very lucky. They are ordinary working class, often with quite poor schooling. The luckiest ones, those with wealthy parents and good school marks will probably have had better chances to get work at home. This is not a problem for the privileged. According to my research 40% of parents to pre-school children (altogether 79 families) came to Sweden due to unemployment and 16% for "economic reasons", which will amount to about the same thing. Very few knew Swedish in advance,

55% think it is a difficult language. In this country they are, almost all of them, working within industry, very often with shift-work, or in catering or cleaning. They have long working hours, often night-work, and some work very early or very late. They often have more than one child to take care of.

In brief, even if they want to learn Swedish and teach their children, it will take time, presumably several years, before they can do it well. One cannot postpone talking to children till one knows enough of the language in another country, and it may even be a disadvantage if one tries to teach in a defective language. The sometimes short time parents and children can spend together ought to be spent talking the language they have in common, and even that is not enough as a rule.

Question number 4 immediately follows. When people are told that immigrant children need training in their parents' language they ask, often with a bit of scorn or condescension: "But really, don't the parents do that?" My usual reply is: "Do we?"

We, in common with all other nations, have created the whole school system, just to give parents the aid needed in this respect. Knowledge of the language is crucial for all development, for performance in school, for the ability to manage adult life.

My research

I have carried out roughly 4 different kinds of studies during the last few years.

1) A series of interviews with 79 families with pre-school children. 55 of these interviews were extensive ones.
2) A questionnaire to teachers about 123 children between the ages of 4-8 and their linguistic, personal and social development.
3) A series of tests which, combined with the tests given by teachers at the beginning of school, aim at giving a picture of the factors mentioned under point 2. About 100 children were tested.
4) A series of interaction observations of children in pre-school, carried out during a period of two years. 83 children were still living in the area when the study ended.

I cannot here give more than a brief report, and I have chosen to give the more important conclusions, without evidence. I can but hope that this will show why I believe in the earlier stated suggestions.

The interviews with parents

43% of the Finns believe that they will stay in Sweden, 11% are going back, 46% don't know. Of the Greeks 15% will stay, 8% will not and 77% are uncertain.

The large percentage of parents who don't know whether they will stay or leave tells us a lot about what risks the children run. Quite a few of them may have to face more than one adjustment. 57% of the Finns, 77% of the Greeks and 80% of what I have called "Others" are homesick. Yugoslavs differ from the others in both above mentioned respects. Nobody wants to return and only 33% are homesick. The Yugoslavs have, as compared with the rest, better education and have more often come for political reasons.

Most parents manage quite well as regards housing and wages, and they mostly claim that at least one in the family can speak enough Swedish to cope. 76% of the parents think that their children speak good or rather good Swedish. Seeing that I know quite a few of these children, I must state that this is a great exaggeration, probably due to the parents' own lack of language.

65% of the parents think that the children know enough Swedish to manage reasonably in school, and I'm afraid I find that doubtful as well. 60% think that their children would manage school if they returned home. 80% think that the children need help in school in order to keep up their home language.

64% of the parents think that their childrens' home language is just as good as it would have been if they had stayed in the home country (I consistently use the phrase "home language" instead of mother tongue, because the language spoken in the home is sometimes the father's) but 29% do not. 31% relate that the children sometimes refuse to speak their home language.

36% of the parents are worried about phenomena in Swedish society, such as drugs, smoking, drinking habits, sexual liberty and too great an amount of freedom for children and teenagers. It seems to me that some of their fears are due to lack of information or to the fact that information is biased. They only read "easy papers" and get too many of their impressions from, for instance, cinema adverts, headlines etc. The school has an important task here in giving more sober information.

A great number of the comments from the parents show that they have a strong wish to remain what they are, i. e. Finns want to be respected as Finns and do not wish to become "swedicized", and they want their children to enjoy the same rights.

Teachers' ratings

In brief, the ratings show that teachers notice great changes during a year as regards linguistic abilities. This change is greater in children who have earlier been given some kind of extra training in pre-school. The trained children have been going to special groups with a maximum number of 15 pupils. One of these groups has been led by a Swedish teacher, and the other by a Finnish-speaking teacher. In the first group the children were of mixed origin, in the second Finns only. About half of the number had had this treatment during the previous year and were scheduled for ordinary pre-schools or compulsory school. In addition I used a group of untrained children as a control group. It must be said, however, that the groups were not chosen by random sampling or some other acceptable statistical method, due to the fact that pre-school in Sweden is not compulsory and not wholly free of charge. It is very cheap, but the cost has unfortunately some effects, maybe on the most vulnerable children. We found it needed, too, to persuade some socio-economically weak families to send their children, seeing that these children were in need of extra care. These factors may have an influence on the reliability, but I don't think it will be too great.

The children in the Finnish pre-school were every day given a lesson in Swedish by a junior school teacher who also went round to other pre-schools in the area.

We were later able to give training in the home language to practically all Finnish and Greek children in the pre-schools in Norrköping, but this will not have had much effect on these ratings. We did not manage to arrange for other nations. The problems are great, not least because of political differences among the parents.

The questionnaire was long, and I will only mention a few more points. The teachers report that at least the older children (7-8 years) seem to speak and understand well. The pronunciation is fairly clear, the sentences acceptable, although more than half of the children use [illegible] sentences, odd words or mix both languages. Quite a few children are so extremely silent that the teacher hardly knows what they sound like.

Somehow - without being able to prove it - I believe that the teachers would have noticed a lot more about the language of these children had they been trained to be more observant about it. You will easily overlook clues if you don't know where to find them or even that they are to be found at all. In my opinion there is not enough stress on these skills in Swedish teacher training

colleges, and I think that this has to be imoroved if teachers are to be more efficient.

I have over the years talked to a lot of bilingual teachers, and they point to the fact that there is a great risk of immigrant children being unable to differentiate between languages and not having access to enough in either language. It is a weakness that goes deeper than words only, it concerns the structure of the language as a whole. I find it alarming, seeing that people today need all their faculties in order to cope with the enormous problems which are facing the world. It would take a great deal of teacher skill to help free the languages of immigrant children from mutual contamination and aid the children to function adequately in each.

It may seem unnecessary to discuss personal and social development here, but I think that it has such an impact on, as well as being influenced by, language, that a few words are needed. 23% of the children seldom or never took any initiative to talk to the staff, 33% did it sometimes. This seems to me a bit unusual. The children I know talk very much and want to discuss a lot with friendly adults, but I'm not sure about the frequency in groups.

29% of the children rarely or never take any initiative in play. 24% are rated as rather or very inhibited, 14% as passive. 11% are rated as "not very popular amongst other children", 69% rarely or never object to others' demands, 78% rarely or never show aggression.

The picture is, thus, a silent, rather subdued, reticent and non-aggressive child. Not all have these qualities at the same time, and indeed, not all seem to be bothered by them, but I would claim that at least about 20% of these children are running the risk of learning too little, being forgotten by harassed teachers, ignored by playmates and/or mobbed. A small but definite number will develop worse symptoms such as mutism, inability to speak. I believe that the silent children are worse off than the talkative ones. The ebullient, aggressive children who dare to speak are not rejected or isolated to the same extent.

The tests

One of the tests given by me was Raven's progressive Matrices Test, another one was the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test. Two simple language tests were used, one of which was translated into Finnish and Serbo-Croatian.

All tests are such that they require only a minimum of linguistic ability. Most instructions can be given by pointing or by using very simple words.

A series of tests are given by the teachers when the children start school. Some of these require understanding of the language, some are nearly non-verbal.

The results of the tests coincide to a great extent, whether they were given by me or by the teachers. The children do fairly well on non-verbal tests. The distributions have a reasonable resemblance to the normal curve.

On verbal tests, however, where knowledge of Swedish is important they do not do very well. The vocabulary test given by teachers has a mean for 100 children of 2.7, whereas 5 ought to be normal (the stanine distribution is used). 57% are at the very bottom of the scale. A test of conception of numbers gives roughly similar results, a mean of 3.3 and 40% on the lowest steps.

The trained children are better as regards vocabulary. The differences are significant at the 0.20 level. The best results are obtained by the group of children who were given pre-school training in Finnish and at the same time were taught Swedish. The mean of these children was 4.3 and the distribution approximates to the normal curve.

On the language tests the spread is very great, especially on the Swedish version. On the translations the children's mean scores were good. The trained children were better than the others. On the Swedish versions the means were substantially lower. On one of these tests the non-trained children got better results, but this is the only deviation from the pattern.

In addition to these tests a rather laborious picture-test was given. The children were shown 6 pictures by their teacher and asked to tell as much as possible about what they saw. Their speech was taped. Afterwards the tapes were transformed into written material. The words and sentences were counted and an index of medium length of sentence computed.

In comparison with children who use their home language the immigrant children use far fewer words and shorter sentences, often only one word at a time. Earlier research shows for instance that a 5 year old child as a mean uses about 5 words per sentence. The immigrant children used less than 2.

The distribution is wide, especially as regards the number of words uttered. For different ages the figures are:

Age	Width of variance	Median	Mean of sentence length
3 years	27-210	111	1,45
4 "	35-384	115	1,52
5 "	66-622	160	1,71
6 "	49-952	292	1,96
7 "	221-886	382	2,52

The interaction study

As a summary of this study I will state what I regard as important observations. There is no doubt that these statements are subjective. I do not even try to claim anything else.

But if you watch children systematically for a long period of time you will inevitably learn something. This is what I learnt: Fewer than half of the immigrant children contact other children directly and with self-confidence. The 6 year olds showed more self-confidence than the younger children.

The size of the group increases with the age of the children. The younger children had more contact with adults than the older, and they rather frequently played alone, in pairs or parallel to other children. Some of them - especially the Finnish ones - take a long time to establish contact with other children, and for weeks, sometimes months, they hardly talk. They seem contented, however, and play intensely.

A minor number of children seem to be more or less isolated, although it is difficult to know whether they are rejected or themselves prefer to keep to one side. In groups where the ages vary it sometimes happens that the younger or more reticent children are a little frightened by the noise and outbursts from older and/or more aggressive children.

An interesting kind of interacting - which I believe is rather common among Finnish children - is silent but gay playing, half parallel, half in groups. The children seem to communicate by other means than words, and you can tell by their bright faces and radiant eyes that they enjoy it.

Most children are well accepted by the others. The verbally talented ones are best received. Some of the silent ones are "fringe children", i. e. they are accepted as followers or participants but they don't play active or leading roles.

Some of the Mediterranean children have a period in the beginning when they may be rather obstructive and provocative, presumably due to the permissive atmosphere in

Swedish pre-schools. Most of them adapt quite well, but a few have considerable trouble with understanding that there are rules even if adults are less severe. Most immigrant children try to speak Swedish, but there are some who hardly speak at all or who whisper or stutter in great embarrassment if they are asked to say something. I believe that these children need extra care from the staff, but this care must be adequate. As always in groups, however, a great deal of the adults' time is spent solving the problems of the noisy ones, and the quiet children are sometimes forgotten. Children in groups where they are in a minority or the only one from another country - i.e. most ordinary pre-schools - avoid the use of their home language, even if they could use it. It seems to me that Greeks are less bothered than others. If they have the chance they speak Greek freely. Finnish children give me the impression of being somewhat embarrassed about their nationality and language, which is alarming indeed, and might be one of the reasons why mutism seems to be more common amongst them than among children from other countries.

Some of the children I have watched have been in day-nurseries. It seems to me that these children run a risk of losing their home language completely. They learn Swedish without much difficulty but at the expense of their parents' language. As I see it this may cause great sorrow and many problems within the families. Parents and children must be able to communicate on increasingly abstract levels if the childrens' personal and social development is to run smoothly. The language of an infant is very immature and based on simple, concrete thinking. Many necessary concepts just do not exist. These concepts must be anchored in both languages if the child is going to have command of a sufficient bilingualism. There are no short-cuts.

Conclusion

Everything I have learned these years points to the fact that immigrant children must have much more attention from adults, and they must receive adequate treatment. If this is to be achieved teachers must know better what to do. Parents must be told, too, that they must increase their efforts beyond what would have been needed in the home country in order to maintain and develop the childrens' language.

All the measures needed will inevitably cost a lot of money and a great deal of re-thinking amongst administrators. None of these changes are easy to obtain. There have begun to appear a number of promising signs in this country, however, and I feel rather optimistic about the future, although I'm sure that the main work still remains to be done.

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COMMENTS FROM OUR READERS

The recently circulated address sheets had space for comments, which was used by some of our readers for encouragement, criticism or suggestions. We print below a small selection from the first category, which includes one or two comments from previous letters, and all the criticism or suggestions we have received. We are always grateful for this kind of feedback, and should like to publish more letters in future - if you write them!

We have also received some 100 offers to review for us. We ask our volunteers to have patience, as both your editors have full-time jobs in addition to System (rapidly becoming very time-consuming, though most rewarding occupations). We will contact first of all those who have suggested or suggest in the future works for review, but will make use of our files as the need arises. Meanwhile, our very genuine thanks for the obvious interest and helpfulness shown by our readers.

Appreciation

Praise to System! It fills a need.

Prof. Renzo Titone
Rome

I believe System fills a gap that needed very much to be filled.

Betty Lou Dubois
Department of Speech
New Mexico State University

"System is the best periodical I've seen in the field of Educational Technology - most are mere adverts or technician's 'gobbledygook'."

Mr. A.J. Dickson
Ealing Technical College
London

"It is by far the most informative periodical in instructional methodology for language learning that I have seen."

Prof. William Geffen
U.S. Air Force
Colorado

I was in Copenhagen in 1972. I never thought SYSTEM would be such a success.

Pierre Lavorel
Institut National des Sciences Appliquées
Lyon

Carry on!

Dr Joshua A. Fishman
Bronx, N. Y.

An excellent journal which has provided many useful contacts with others interested in the same areas as myself.

Jane Black Goepper
Romance Languages
University of Cincinnati

System a most valued newcomer to periodical literature.

R.H. Lloyd
Salisbury, Rhodesia

This is a popular title in our library and we are happy to be receiving it.

Sue Beasley, Asst. Librarian
Southwest Regional Laboratory for
Educational Research and Development
Los Alamitos, Calif.

Thank you very much for sending your excellent journal. Keep up the good work.

Gerhard Clausing
German Department
Univ. of Minnesota

"I have read the Newsletter with great interest and found it very useful."

S.N. Saha
Principal
Regional College of Education
Mysore
India

It's a good job you're doing.

Prof. Ronald Gougher
West Chester State College, Pa.

Think the pub. is a giant step forward in international understanding and coordination in the field of language teaching and computers.

Capt. T. Edward Harvey
U.S. Air Force Academy,
Colorado

Still fully contented! (Thank you!) System struck me as, at the time, concise and manifold; it's lively and stimu-

lating - just useful. I'm glad I managed to get into your mailing list.

Rudolf Nissen
Staatl. Studienseminar für die Lehrämter an Hamburger Schulen

"Subsequent readings of the newsletter will surely provide me with more ideas for developing my courses."

Prof. Ernest A. Frechette
The Florida State University

"I enjoyed the newsletter very much and would appreciate receiving it regularly. To my great pleasure, I found the articles in your publication to be practical. As a pragmatist, I was also delighted to find that the contributors to System are not particularly impressed with quoting from well-known sources and with a plethora of footnotes."

Prof. Helen Aron
Union College
Cranford, New Jersey

I think /System/ is excellent and makes good use of applied research.

Prof. Jacob Ornstein
Depts. of Modern Langs. and Linguistics
University of Texas at El Paso

...we would like to include System as one of the standard reference journals in Iranian teaching training centers and English-Linguistics departments.

Jeris E. Strain
Director, English Language Consultants
P. O. Box 13-1205, Tehran

We would take this opportunity to express our appreciation of the work you do in connection with the editing and distribution of the newsletter, System. Especially we find most valuable the practical way in which the material is being presented. We read the newsletter with great interest and wish you great success also in the future.

Tandbergs Radiofabrikk A/S
Oslo

It's an interesting journal. Thank you. I don't like too much technology in education but I'll sign the petition since you're a good chap, Norman! Anyway if the commission is set up maybe some people'll get on it who see that the "technology" element is just right - not excessive!

Mr Henry Waring
School of Modern Language
Polytechnic of Central London

The format

Only one remark which concerns the format (physical presentation): could the texts be typed with spaces (not double space, just single space) it is rather difficult to read the present format of the text.

Naum R. Dimitrijević
Beograd, Yugoslavia

Why do you use such small types? Can't you improve your printing technique? It really is hardly legible.

Radmila Djordjević
Beograd, Yugoslavia

I'm quite pleased with the content and format.

Dewayne Hendricks
Information Processing
Southern Illinois University

We hope our readers will note an improvement in legibility in this issue. In fact, those who have been with us from the first will, I trust, have noted many improvements. Our problem is that, as we wish to continue to distribute System free of charge, we must keep the price down and must live with the resources at the disposal of our Department. Clearly greater spacing between the lines would make an immediate improvement, but would also increase the number of pages by 50%. This would mean either a corresponding reduction in the number of articles printed, or a new and more expensive type of binding (not to mention increased paper costs). We have changed font, we must try again. Suggestions will be welcomed.

Our proper field of interest - viewpoints

I believe that if your journal is to fulfill a specific function you should limit your articles to educational media, programmed instruction, computers, and testing. That way it could become a leading journal for new information in these areas.

Charles W. Stansfield, Director
University of Colorado Study Abroad Program
Facultad de Humanidades
Universidad Veracruzana
Jalapa, Vera Cruz, Mexico

You can't limit SYSTEM just to hardware use: the logical chain begins higher up. I would suggest the following guidelines: Review hard factual work in the areas: Definition of objectives, specification of content, selection of method /is a vis phases of the presentation/

learning process, evaluation (summ. and formative).

Please circulate/pass round a new circular to elicit/ information about what the subscribers to SYSTEM are doing, researching etc. This group represents for me a unique opportunity to break out of the bounds of the national U.K. language associations, and I would like to enter into closer contact with continental colleagues.

Mr A.L. Jameson
Dept. of Russian and Soviet Studies
University of Lancaster
LA1 4YN U.K.

I would like to see System limit itself to the areas of language teaching technology and technological applications of theoretical findings in psychology, communications and linguistics to language teaching. I feel that the recent issue with a section on bilingual education would have been more appropriate to methods type journals such as English Language Teaching. I'm afraid that if System tries to cover everything in applied linguistics it will lose much of what now makes it unique. The journal has thus far been interesting in the direction it is taking and I would prefer more articles aimed at the interaction of empirical research and experimentation utilizing educational technology in language teaching.

Dr Herbert W. Seliger
English Department
Bar Ilan University
Ramat Gan, Israel

I come in contact with many people interested in bilingual education. Many of these people have asked me for a copy of the May issue of System. The issue has a fine, broad, readable presentation of the educational and social problem. Could you send me 100 copies?

Huberto Molina
SWRL Educational Research and Development
4665 Lampson Avenue
Los Alamitos, Calif. 90720

I should add that I found the May issue very valuable and interesting.

Jac. L. Williams
University College of Wales
Aberystwyth SY23 1NZ

This raises an important point of principle, which we discuss in the editorial. The circular requested by Mr. Jameson is already planned, and will be sent out as soon as practicable.

Suggestions on content

I think that System usually has interesting material and am glad that you find time for it. I hope you continue to include a calendar, by all means more extensive with latest application date, date for submitting papers etc. It would also be useful to have the complete addresses of the authors of articles (postal number etc.)

Christina Stendahl
Dept. of English
University of Gotherburg, Sweden

We are delighted to publish these details if we receive the appropriate information - organizers of conferences, symposia etc. please note!

I am especially interested in the problems of teaching DEAD languages - is any work being done in this field?

Dr. W.G.E. Watson
Dept. of Hebrew and Semitic Languages
King's College
Aberdeen AB9 2NB, Scotland

The only article of this nature so far submitted has been C. D. Mackay-Gibson, "Language Laboratory Methods for Old English", System 1/1 January 1973. The first two issues of our journal are no longer available, but off-prints can be sent to those interested. We certainly see no reason why advances in language teaching methodology should be restricted only to the field of modern languages. Any reports, please?

One topic I would like to see discussed in SYSTEM: the application or use of TV-script-writing techniques in the preparation of scripts for textbook illustrators. Related to the subject is the influence of TELEVISION on the design of illustrations (visuals) in FLT materials. Equally important is the influence of comicbook techniques in the visualization of FLT textbooks.
Another topic worthy of investigation: problems faced in recording texts at different speeds (casual speed, rapid speed, etc).

Prof. Dr. Francisco Gomes de Matos
Instituto de Idiomas Yázigi S/C
Centro de Linguistica Applicada
Avenida 9 de Julho 3.166
01416 São Paulo - SP.

A survey of the work in progress of multilingual lexicographical data-bases.

Dr. Jurgen Ehlers
c/o Ernst Klett Publisher
D 7000 Stuttgart 1
P.O. Box 809

Untersuchungen über die Wirksamkeit von Medien im Medienverbund.

Dr. Helm von Faber
Referat für Technische Unterrichtsmittel
und Mediendidaktik
8000 München 40
Kaulbachstrasse 91

An article on "Sections Bilinques" between France and England. A Somerset school is engaged in a project in this field, giving an increasing amount of bilingual teaching to totally mixed-ability English monolingual children. The school would gladly contribute an article.

Mr. Barrie King
Language Adviser
County Hall, Taunton

This article has been requested - we look forward to its appearance. Reactions to any or all of the above suggestions will similarly be welcomed.

When you publish articles in languages that people do not understand, perhaps a nice feature would be to have translations available for those persons upon request.

Nelly McEwen
Dept. of Secondary Education
University of Alberta

We wish indeed we could give this service, but translation is a very exact art, time-consuming and therefore expensive. We print in English, German and French, but we realize that only the first language is understood by all our readers. I am afraid that is, from the English abstract, an article appears useful, the individual reader must seek help from his or her colleagues.

Letter - the cassette recorder debate

Dr. John R. Allen
Co-editor of SYSTEM
UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA
Winnipeg 19
CANADA

São Paulo, 09 de julho de 1974

Dear Dr. Allen:

I have just read the May issue of SYSTEM and was particularly pleased with your sensible, cogent REPLY to Dieter Mindt's article. I share your views on the usefulness and greater flexibility of a cassette system. On the strong (but nevertheless subject to attenuation) argument against cassettes

on economic grounds, I would add that it has become (or is becoming?) universally known that sets of cassettes can be bought on time, even by "children with parents of lower social standing" to use Mindt's phrase. To me, cassettes have liberated students from the more-often-than-not artificial standard lab walls and have provided teachers with a simple and yet effective technological aid to be used constantly in the classroom. Language laboratories, one may counterargue, have catered predominantly to privileged schools (only a minory of institutions, in Latin America, for example, can boast of such resources), whereas cassettes and cassette recorders are fast becoming a lower-middle-class student's piece of educational equipment. Without aiming at being an educational futurist I would be tempted to predict that, because of the advent of cassettes, learning a foreign language will become more dramatically ALIVE, than it has in the past. The freedom of establishing one's own schedule (program) of auditory exposure to a foreign language, through a cassette program which is integrated to other components in a language-learning program, will be a crucial factor in generating more motivation and consequently more effective learning.

Cordially,

Prof. Dr. Francisco Gomes de Matos
Director
Instituto de Idiomas Yázigi
Av. 9 de Julho, 3.166
São Paulo, SP.
Brazil

CALENDAR

17 Dec '76 — Skylark II: A Workshop on Southwestern English, New Mexico University and Trinity University, At Univ. of Texas - El Paso.
Contact: Prof. Betty Jan Dubois
Dept. of Speech
New Mexico State University
P.O. Box 3A
Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003

[illegible] June — [illegible]'s Second International Conference,
Theme: "Language Acquisition and Maintenance",
University College Dublin
Contact: M.E. Conchannon O'Brien
Conference Chairman
ATE[illegible], 99 St. Stephen's Green
Dublin 2

[illegible] July 76 — TEFL Training Course, University College Dublin
Contact: as above.

[illegible] Aug — European Institute of Applied Linguistics
Summer Course: Language Testing,
[illegible]ouvain, Belgium.
Details available soon: contact for 1st
Norman F. Davies, Univ. of Linköping,
Sweden

[illegible] Aug 76 — Fourth International Congress of Applied Linguistics (AILA),
University of Stuttgart
Deadline for papers: Dec 1, 1975
Contact: AILA Secretariat
c/o Herrn Detlev Blanke
7 Stuttgart 50
Hallschlag 15L

1-5 Sep 76 — IFIP 2nd World Conference "Computers in Education",
Marseille, France.
Contact: APCET
Université Paris IX - DAUPHINE
75775 Paris - CEDEX 16

[Can anyone cover this conference for us? Ed.]

BOOKS AND PERIODICALS RECEIVED

Andersson, Åke, Sprogundervisning og sprøglaboratorium. Copenhagen: Nyt Nordisk Forlag Arnold Busck, 1974. 167 pp.

Boletim de Lingüística, Círculo de Estudos Linguísticos da Universidade Estadual de Londrina. Ano 1, No. 1, March 1974.

EFIL, English Language Teaching Information, Vol. IV, No. 3, June 1974. Zagreb, Yugoslavia.

IRAL, Review of Applied Linguistics, 23, 1974. Institut voor Toegepaste Linguistiek, Louvain.

Lenguaje y Ciencias, Publicación Trimestral del Departmento de Idiomas y Linguística, Vol. 14, No. 1, March 1974. Universidad Nacional de Trujillo.

Modern Languages in Scotland, No. 3, Sept 1974. The Scottish Centre for Modern Languages, Aberdeen.

Speech Transmission Laboratory, Quarterly Progress and Status Report, April 15, 1974. Dept. of Speech Communication, Royal Institute of Technology (KTH), Stockholm.

Sprachlehrforschung, Manfred Kelz, Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung, Heft 3, 1974. Sprachzentrum der Universität Bielefeld.

Undervisning 21, 3/74. University of Gothenburg.

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Allen, John B.	The Case against the Conventional Language Laboratory	1/10-13
Andersson, Åke	Teacher Training - a "Must" in the Language Laboratory Field	1/28-30
Ariew, Robert	Teaching French on PLATO IV	1/1-7
Aron, Helen	Problems and Suggested Solutions in the Establishment of an English to Speakers of Other Languages Program at an American Community College	2/77-80
Balsaen, Hubert	Laboratoire de Langues et Enseignement Traditionnel au Niveau Universitaire	2/17-19
Bennett, Wm. A.	The Purposes of a Language Laboratory	1/20-27
Blomqvist, Lars-Erik	Reel to Reel Labs Outdated?	1/14-16
Condon, Eliane C.	Bilingual Education	2/16-32
Davies, Norman F.	The Language Laboratory - an Annotated Bibliography	1/52-67
————————	Bilingual Education and the Immigrant	2/14-15
Dubois, Betty Lou	Written English Communicative Competence of UTEP Chicanos	2/49-56
Grandiehner, Philip	PLATO: German Reading, English as a Second Language, and Bilingual Education	2/69-76
Hagiwara, M. P.	Review: Chataignier, L. J. and G. Taggart, Laboratoires de langues: orientations nouvelles.	2/7-13
Hare, J.	Notes on a Group Work French Teaching Project	3/27-30
Jung, Udo	Co-operative Learning in the Language Laboratory	3/21-26
Maier, H. and B. Strecker	Fernstudium Englisch: Objektivierung und Individualisierung im Bereich Sprachpraxis	1/37-51
Mindt, Dieter	Full-Fledged Language Laboratories vs. Portable Cassette Tape Recorders	2/1-3
Molina, Huberto	The SWRL English Language and Concepts Program for Spanish-Speaking Children: 1971-72 Tryout	2/57-68

Murakami, Ken	A Language Aptitude Test for the Japanese (GTT)	3/31-47
Nord, James R.	Language Laboratories: A Place for Students to Shut Up and Listen	2/4-6
Nübold, Peter	Sprechfertigkeitstest: Lernzielgerechte Leistungskontrolle im Sprachlabor und ihre Technologischen Probleme	3/10-20
Nuffield Foundation Group	Higher Education Projects	1/68-72
Preston, Richard M.	A Need for Preliminary Assessment in Bilingual Education	2/33-38
Ross, L. and B. V. Sailer	The Teacher and the Machine	3/7-9
Schiffler, Ludger	Sprachlaborprogramme im Gruppenunterricht	1/31-36
Stoekfelt-Hoatson, B-I	Linguistic, Personal and Social Development of Immigrant Children	3/67-77
Suarez-Rossi, C.	Cultural Characteristics in Bilingual Learners	2/39-48
Tumat, Alfred J.	Deutsch als Fremdsprache: objektivierte und standardisierte Prüfungen im Rahmen einer Grundstufe	3/57-59
Valoranta, K. and D. Sullivant	Group Working in the Language Classroom	3/48-56
Williams, Jac L.	Bilingualism in Wales	3/60-66
Zoller, Peter	Composition and the Computer	1/3-6

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